The Nation.

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The Week.

We have long been trying to get some Dingleyite to tell us exactly when the famous tariff for revenue is going to produce revenue, and we at first thought that the *Tribune's* elaborate article on the subject on Thursday would give us a definite date; but it miserably fails us. November was to be a great revenue month, but all that is now claimed for it is that it will produce "almost" enough to meet the month's expenses. Not a deficit, you observe—that is a hateful word—but almost enough. Then we read on and find that there is "fair ground for hope" that "by the end of the year" the Dingley tariff (elegantly called by the *Tribune* "the revenue bill") will "begin to return enough to meet current expenditures at the ordinary rate." This looks encouraging, but we are instantly reminded that "the disbursements in January" are "usually larger than in most months," so there will be "no occasion for disappointment" if there is a deficit in January, too. There the matter is left hanging, and we are as much in the dark as ever as to when the revenue is to begin. Mr. McKinley told us on March 4 that we were to have sufficient revenue *"without delay, hindrance, or postponement."* The deficit for the fiscal year to date is 44,000,000, and there will be no occasion for disappointment, the *Tribune* says, if it amounts to $50,000,000 by the end of January. The bigger the deficit, the more "cheerful" the Republicans. With the finances in such a snarl it is certain that the country would not dare put incompetent Democrats in charge again.

It has been hastily assumed that the transfer to the United States Treasury of $14,000,000 on account of the Pacific Railway sale will add just so much to the available assets. But this is to overlook the extraordinary American genius for finance. That money is a sacred fund, as it were, not to be expended in any ordinary way, but to be devoted exclusively to some new form of extravagance. The Nicaragua Canal Association has already held a meeting and voted that this Pacific money be religiously set aside for itself. We are sure the pension agents will also want it, and so will the ship-armor men, and the sugar-bounty men, and the bounty-on-exports men, to say nothing of the one-cent postage men, and the buying-of-Cuba men, and the other men, amounting to the whole membership of Congress, each of whom would like to grab the whole sum for "public works" in his own district. The fact is that the unexpected addition of $14,000,000 to the Treasury is evidently going to excite the maddest competition to see who shall have it. The net result will probably be some log-rolling scheme by which $40,000,000 or $50,000,000 will be taken from the Treasury on the strength of this extra $14,000,000 put into it.

There is great enthusiasm in the protection press just now over reciprocity—especially Canadian reciprocity. If the farmers in northern New York had, in grateful acknowledgment of protection against Canadian hay and barley, voted the Republican ticket a little more heartily on November 2, the case might have been different. One of the fundamental principles of the protectionist economy is, no Republican votes, no protection. This was explicitly assigned as the reason for giving up the sugar duties in 1890. Louisiana, by her steady Democratic majorities, had forfeited all right to protection; and if the farmers on the Canadian border aren't going to pay for protection by votes, why, it will be only right to expose them at once to the horrors of Canadian hay and barley. But this is to be remembered in all the negotiations, that if a reciprocity treaty is agreed upon, it will be due to a change of policy at Washington. The Canadians have been willing to make an agreement from the start. They had representatives in Washington before the Dingley bill was hatched, inquiring what could be done to facilitate trade. But they were rebuffed. It was because they could do nothing with the United States that they turned to England. So it was explicitly stated in the Canadian Parliament. Thus if there is now any change of plan it must be on the part of our Government. Canada has always been ready to enter into a reasonable treaty. Whether one can be framed that the Senate would ratify is doubtful, but we surely have no objection to protectionists undoing, in the name of reciprocity, what they have done, to their own manifest alarm, in the name of protection. The difficulty is to keep reciprocity as a commercial question from getting mixed up with reciprocity as a political question.

Prof. Taussig, in his answers to the questions of the Currency Commission, advances the opinion that the silver currency (certificates and dollars) will not prove an embarrassment to the Government if the legal-tender notes are retired, and hence that it will not be necessary to provide for their redemption in gold. Probably every competent authority will concur in this opinion. There is a certain field of circulation to be filled with currency of certain denominations, from one dollar up to tens and twenties. Congress can, if it chooses, assign this field to the existing silver certificates and silver dollars with the assurance that they will be so constantly employed as to give no trouble. Even if they were made specifically redeemable in gold, they could not, in such case, be collected for the purpose of redemption. They would fill the same rôle as the uncovered circulation of the Bank of England, or the five-franc pieces of France, or the thalers of Germany. Redemption would be merely nominal, as it is now, yet the silver currency would continue at par as it is now. Prof. Taussig makes the further recommendation that the retirement of the greenbacks should be made *pari passu* with the issue of banknotes, or at the rate of four dollars of the former for five of the latter. This is a suggestion of a political rather than an economical kind, but is a wise one, and will, no doubt, be followed by Congress, if that body can be induced to provide for the retirement of the greenbacks on any terms.

The recent elections, and particularly those in Kentucky and Iowa, show that the Bryan element has secured a hold upon the Democratic organization so firm that it need no longer fear the opposition of the Gold Democrats. In both Kentucky and Iowa the National Democrats put excellent tickets in the field, and conducted a vigorous canvass, but in each case the vote polled was small, and it is obvious that most of those who dissented from the Chicago platform last year are ready to fall back into the ranks. The principle of "regularity" has always had great weight with Democrats, and while some believers in the gold standard excused their support of the regular candidates who were running on a silver platform this year on the ground that the contest was really on State issues, it is evident that many of these will do the same thing next year, when nobody can dispute that the issues are national. A few old Democrats voted the Republican ticket again this year as they did last year, but the whole drift of things since McKinley's inauguration has been calculated to discourage such a tendency, and they will be still less inclined to keep it up next year.

Another thing which has been made plain, especially by the result in Iowa, is the hopelessness of maintaining a separate Populist organization. Many members of that party detested the fusion with the Bryan Democrats in the Presidential contest, and vowed that

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they would never support such a coalition again. These "Middle-of-the-Road" men put up a ticket of their own in Iowa, and expected that it would receive a good many votes, but the movement "petered out" until it had become ridiculous even before election day. It is as obvious to old Populists as it is to old Democrats that no third organization is likely to amount to anything under present conditions, and this forces the former, as well as the latter, to choose between the Republicans and the Bryanites who have got control of the Democratic organization. The only question left is as to the relative proportions of Populist principles which will be found in so-called Democratic platforms hereafter, and the promise is that they will be large enough to reconcile even "Middle-of-the-Road" men.

The sworn returns of expenditures which candidates for office in this State are required to make are always illuminative, although our law is the most inadequate one of its kind in this country. It requires sworn returns by candidates, but not by campaign committees, and in this respect is especially defective. Candidates can conceal the real use to which their money is put by turning it over in a lump sum to the committees, and it is not possible to trace it further, except by requiring the committees to account for its use, as is done in all adequate corrupt-practice laws. Still, the statements made by candidates are often of value, merely as revelations of the amounts which are spent in an election. Thus, Francis M. Scott's return disclosed the fact that he had paid Tammany Hall nearly $9,000 for his nomination to the Supreme Court bench. Comptroller Fitch's return shows that he paid over $1,000 for various purposes, including "advertising." The latter item includes, without doubt, the eulogistic biographical sketch of Mr. Fitch, with his portrait in the centre, which appeared in the papers a few days before election. Many of the candidates are more frank about this item than Mr. Fitch is, and set it down openly as "newspaper sketches." It is the old "reading notice" in a new form.

But defective as our corrupt-practice law is, it is far from being strictly enforced. In many localities it is treated as a joke, and its provisions are openly defied. Take, for example, the following return made by Frank Matty, a candidate for Alderman in Syracuse:

For newspapers	$10 00
Janitor service	5 00
Hacks and carryalls	20 00
Refreshments and cigars	200 00
For renewing old acquaintances and forming new	900 00
	$1,135 00

Compare this impudent performance with the requirements of the law:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file an itemized statement showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through ony other person, in aid of his election. *Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed.*"

It is perfectly clear that Mr. Matty has not complied with the law. It is also clear from his statement that he made very doubtful use of his money, and as he was elected by a plurality of only 200 votes, his defeated opponent ought to bring him into court at once and compel him to make his return conform to the law, or suffer the penalty.

An amusing "coincidence" is pointed out by the *Tribune* in the virtually simultaneous publication of the same editorial article in Platt's Owego paper and his personal organ in this city. It was a statesmanlike comment on the result of our municipal election, placing all the blame of Tammany success upon the Citizens' Union, and "thanking God" that Seth Low had not been elected. Platt seems to have composed the article in advance of the election for use in his organ here, and to have been so pleased with it that he took a "proof" of it with him to Owego, Tioga County, when he went there to vote. There is nothing surprising in this coincidence. The only unusual aspect of it is that the article should appear in only two of the Platt organs at once. Heretofore, Platt's custom has been to supply all his editors throughout the State with his views editorially expressed in circular form. These are usually quoted here in his personal organ as evidence of the soundness of the rural Republican press. It is a droll business in every way, but in nothing more so than the solemnity with which the Platt editors go about it.

Little has been heard since the election about Congressman Grosvenor's bill to repeal the civil-service law. A month ago we were told that the Grosvenor project was gaining friends every day, and that it would certainly be introduced and passed in the coming session. Some of its over-enthusiastic promoters thought that it would command enough votes to be passed over a veto if the President should separate himself from his party on this subject. In all this chatter no mention was made of the following clause of the Republican national platform, to wit:

"The civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced, and extended wherever practicable."

Why do we hear no more of this hopeful scheme? What has occurred to damp the enthusiasm of the repealing squad? Possibly the signs of a coming *débâcle* may have been discerned in the voting on the 2d of November. It would not be a nice thing to repeal the civil-service law and thus enable the Democrats to turn out all the Republican clerks, letter-carriers, postal-route agents, and minor officials all over the country and fill the places with their own "heelers." The fable of the dog that dropped a good piece of meat in the stream in order to grab what he took to be another piece from the mouth of another dog, has much pertinence in this case. Already we hear the Tammany heelers thanking Gov. Black for taking the "starch" out of the civil-service law of this State. They expect to have a Governor of their own kind soon, and when that times comes, they will not be so much embarrassed in finding places for good Democrats as they were when they were last in power at Albany. It is often said that there is no great loss without some small gain. Such would seem to be the case this fall. The Grosvenor repealing law, we venture to say, will not be passed this winter.

Judge Jackson, of the United States District Court for West Virginia, has rendered a decision in which he stoutly maintains that the civil-service rule against removals for political reasons has all the force of statute law, and that no superior official can legally so remove any subordinate in the classified service. The case which came before Judge Jackson was one in which a new (Republican) collector of internal revenue attempted to remove a gauger and a storekeeper (Democratic) in a distillery from their positions by transfers to less desirable places for no other reason than their politics. Some minor points were raised in defence of the collector, into which it is unnecessary to enter, as whether such a transfer was technically a removal. The vital part of the decision is that in which the Judge maintains that the civil-service act is constitutional, and that the executive rules proclaimed by a President under the provisions of that act have themselves the binding effect of the original law, being in fact only methods of carrying out that law. On the 27th of July last, Mr. McKinley issued an order which laid down the rule that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination, except for just cause, upon written charges filed with the head of department or other appointing officer, of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence." In the West Virginia cases the collector attempted to remove men "for the good of the public service," without specifying any "just cause" or giving them "an opportunity to make defence." Judge Jackson holds that this action was as plainly illegal as it was obviously improper. His argument runs thus: In the first place, the rules promulgated

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by the President and the Civil-Service Commission are clearly within their scope and power, under the civil-service act of Congress; and when they exercise the power to limit and restrict the power of removal as they deem best for the public interest, it is only the execution of a duty imposed upon them by Congress and which should be effectually performed and fully complied with. The very object and purpose of the rule of July 27 regarding removals was to furnish a full opportunity to everybody within the classified service to meet any charges made against him, and to prevent his removal without such charges. The assignment of the "good of the public service" as a reason was an attempt to evade the rule, and was "too general, vague, and indefinite to authorize the removal of an officer under existing law."

The respectable negroes of Texas have held a convention at Columbus, which took action that was most creditable to the race. The cause of the meeting was "the alarming frequency of the crimes of criminal outrage and murder by mob violence," the leaders in the movement rightly holding that this state of things made obvious the necessity for action on their part. Resolutions were adopted deprecating the violation of any man's home; deploring "the crimes which have brought a blot upon our people, irrespective of race"; declaring themselves "at the service of any party whose family has been outraged, to do all in our power to apprehend and bring to justice any person who has been so forgetful of the sanctity of female virtue as to violate it"; and asking their white fellow-citizens "not to condemn a whole race for the sins of a few among them, and that they accept our services in ferreting out and bringing such criminals to justice." If the leaders among the blacks can hold their race up to the level of this spirit, they must greatly discourage the perpetration of the crime which has caused so many lynchings, and they should receive the coöperation of the whites in insisting upon legal trials, instead of mob violence, for those who still commit the offence.

The Princeton Inn bade fair to arouse a fiercer discussion in the Presbyterian Church than ever the Princeton theology excited, but Prof. Shields cut all short by promptly withdrawing from the church. He maintained that the persecution to which he was being subjected for having signed an application for a liquor license for the Inn was an unjustifiable interference with his personal rights, and in this position he was supported by so good an ecclesiastical lawyer as President Patton; but rather than precipitate a long wrangle and trial, he stepped out incontinently. Of course the Presbytery had to indulge in some of the "current compliments of theological parting," and if it did not ban and anathematize Prof. Shields, it took occasion to remind him, and other brethren beloved, that to sign an application for a liquor license was to be guilty of "reprehensible complicity" with evil. But much more so, according to other deliverances of the General Assembly, is drinking or offering drink to others; and at least equally so is theatre-going. Yet Prof. Shields might point to honored officers of the church who do these things unrebuked. But the point was that an ecclesiastical fury had been stirred up on the subject of the Princeton Inn, and that a victim was necessary. Prof. Shields's immolation of himself should serve—though the whiskey-drinking divines of earlier Presbyterian days would be puzzled to make out what the row was all about.

We hope the deliverance of President Schurman of Cornell University on football, as reported in the papers, is not a fair specimen of the style of reasoning he teaches his students. Here it is:

> "Several persons playing football have recently been seriously hurt. A far larger number travelling for pleasure on railways have recently been killed. Yet freedom of travelling remains; why, then, an ordinance against football?"

The reason is that people travelling on railroads do not court danger, but avoid it, and would not take a train in which an accident was likely to occur or in which they might be pummelled by the conductor; that when they are killed, therefore, they are killed by pure accident, not by riding on the cowcatcher, or by trying to jump on the train when in motion; that railways are highroads which people must take if they travel at all, and not roads which people take only when travelling for pleasure; that railroad passengers are commonly adults of mature judgment, whose freedom of locomotion cannot be restrained, while the persons who are "seriously hurt playing football" are youths *in statu pupillari*, who can, and ought to be, and are, restrained from pastimes dangerous to health or morals. A pugilistic ring fight, or a "rough-and-tumble" Georgia fight, would not be permitted in any college in the country, however much amusement it would afford. Railroad passengers are not in college, and are not learning how to behave. The analogy, therefore, is not one that either inspires respect or suggests pleasant thought.

The order for "concentration" in Cuba, about the modification of which so much is heard just now, was, of course, a war measure pure and simple. It was intended to cut off the supplies of the roving bands of insurgents. It was, moreover, essentially a measure of retaliation. The revolutionists began the concentrating—that is, they compelled farmers and planters and peasants to declare for the republic, and to furnish supplies, or else to go over bag and baggage to the Spanish lines, thanking their stars that they were not hanged on the spot, as there is reason to believe that too many of them were. Thereupon, Gen. Weyler said it was a poor rule that would not work both ways. If no non-combatants of Spanish sympathies were to be left in peace, none of Cuban sympathies should be. And there was also the possibility of seriously crippling the revolutionists by laying waste and depopulating the farms and plantations whence they had been obtaining food and horses. So the order was issued to drive in all the people of the country districts, who were allowed to cultivate the soil only within the "zones" marked out by the Spanish military authorities. That frightful suffering resulted is undoubted. But it was a result, as we have said, of a war measure, and war measures have a way of producing suffering. To modify or repeal this measure now will naturally give aid and comfort to the insurgents. They will have an easier chance to get supplies, and they will also feel that Spain is relaxing the fierce energy of her efforts to overwhelm them. That Gen. Blanco has moved in the matter as far as he has, shows how anxious the new Spanish Ministry is to please the United States and to placate the Cubans.

Sir Robert Giffen expresses in the *Nineteenth Century* the general English feeling that the Government has been dancing on the edge of a bimetallic precipice. He declares that the City was justly amazed to learn that British Ministers had "listened gravely" to the astonishing proposals made them, and had dealt with these proposals "in a dilatory fashion," when they should have been "summarily dismissed." But, at any rate, argues Sir Robert, something has been gained, which is the conviction, now so earnest and widespread in England, that there "must be no playing with bimetallism in our communications with foreign nations." "We have had a sufficient lesson. Our courtesies are interpreted as business," and any further dallying out of courtesy will surely bring Nemesis. Above all, no more futile international conferences. "How could sober Englishmen, with their belief that the monetary unit is a certain weight of the metal chosen for the standard, ever discuss money with those who believe that money is the creation of law, and that some miracle takes place at the mint?" This is the thing, affirms Sir Robert, that makes bimetallic conferences such "pure farce," and the only way to stop them is for the Government flatly to say to all comers that it can neither confer, correspond, nor consider in reference to any proposal which implies a belief in the theory of bimetallism.

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THE PRESIDENTIAL BOGIE.

Certain things have, in the course of events, been coming out more and more clearly since the disappearance from the political arena of the high moral issues raised by the anti-slavery agitation and by the war. The chief is the inordinate importance which the politicians are constantly endeavoring to ascribe to the Presidential election. That the Presidency is a great office, and that it ought, when Congress has lost so much character, to be filled by a man of courage and ability, there is no doubt. But the politicians by no means try to magnify the office, and generally, nowadays pay scant respect to the actual incumbent. What they try to magnify is not the office, but the election to the office. They spare no pains to fill the popular mind with illusions as to the tremendous gravity for the country of the process of choosing, and of the prodigious risk we shall all run if the other man gets in. What the result would be if our own side does not succeed, they seldom set forth. As a rule, party discipline is so strict they do not need to set it forth. They leave it to the imagination. The result is that most of us have come to believe that one of the chief reasons for our existence is that we may elect Presidents; that government and public offices were not created for man's benefit, but that man was created simply that he might carry on government, and, at stated intervals, elect officers. If we show the least desire to consult the health and happiness of our families, the cleanliness and security of our streets, and the security of our homes and our property, instead of considering the best means of electing the President, we are actually reproached with want of patriotism.

This complete turning upside down of the early democratic idea of government and its objects is one of the oddest phenomena of the day. All who have read of the rise of democracy after our Revolution and that of France, or who remember its great step forward about 1830, must recall the fact that its earliest and most emphatic promise to humanity was that the government should be recalled to its original functions, promotion of the health and happiness and security of the masses; that for this purpose the huge and complicated machinery set up by monarchs should be abolished, and that "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" should be the one object of statesmen, and that everything relating to government should be simplified and cheapened. The paraphernalia of monarchy were to go—the standing armies, the sinecures, the enormous salaries, the pensions, the wars, the dynastic alliances, and all the falsehood and humbug of courts. The French revolutionary war-cry, "Guerre aux châteaux, paix aux chaumières," rang through the world like a trumpet-blast which announced the dawning of a new era.

In one century we seem to have forgotten all this. We have allowed the politicians to "set up" at Washington a game of extraordinary cost, corruption, and complications, as expensive as a monarchy, and consisting simply in filling the place of chief magistrate. We have allowed them so to stuff our imagination with this game that we feel as if we ought to surrender the very ends of government—peace, security, and health—in order to enable them to carry it on with vigor. In comparison with the business of enabling Platt or Croker to elect their man, we have come to look on the very foundations of civilized society as trifles. We cannot police our cities, or elect our health boards, or our School Commissioners, or even buy our clothes, without considering what the effect will be on the next Presidential election. And yet the President has very little power, of legislation none, and the little he has he is bound by one of the most solemn of human oaths to exercise for the comfort and safety of the masses—not to rush into unnecessary wars, not to give away places of trust and emolument so as to satisfy greed or selfishness, not to promote reckless expenditure so as to increase the taxes—not, in short, to veil from the popular eye, for one moment, the great fact that the government was made for man and not man for government.

The game at Washington, however, does not confine itself to the Presidential election. It embraces legislation. People have long ceased to expect from that quarter any laws intended to promote the popular welfare. The business world trembles when Congress meets. Merchants and bankers do not know the day when they will be called on to back up some silly war by the sacrifice of their property, or submit to some senseless exaction because somebody in Congress thought it a good vote-catching dodge. In fact, congressional action has for years been devoted to vote-catching. It is hardly possible to get a measure through the two houses which will benefit neither set of politicians, or will please the supporters of the other party. The experience of the human race, its science, its wisdom and learning, are of no more use in Washington than they would be at an Ojibway council. The Naval Observatory, the Census Bureau, the Coast Survey are all roped into the game. Mathematical problems are decided in caucuses by majority, and the roar of a Kansas Populist counts for more than the words of the greatest jurist or philosopher, because his roar brings votes, while the words of the jurist or philosopher bring nothing but grace, wisdom, and understanding.

What we need is a great revival that will bring back to the minds of the American people the objects for which this government was established, and for which all governments ought to exist. It was established not for the election of officers, but "to establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, *provide for the common defence*, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." Nothing here about aggression, or annexation, or big navies to make people "stand round," or extravagant monarchical pensions, or dirty cities, or corrupt bosses, or "party fealty." This declaration was the preaching of a new gospel to suffering humanity. Yet in one hundred years we have, in many of our States and most of our cities, surrendered our liberties to dictators so base that the framers would not have spoken to them; have elevated the Presidency into an expensive and corrupt monarchy, and, before every quadrennial election, look round with bloodshot eyes for somebody to fight with, as part of the regular procedure.

CRIMINAL USE OF CORPORATE FUNDS.

In the recently published correspondence relating to the alleged payments to T. C. Platt for political purposes by a life-insurance company, Mr. Dawson, the witness in the case, made the statement that he failed to see the significance of the charge, if true. "Unless it can be shown," he says in his letter, "that he [Platt] made a wrong use of the money, converted it to his own use, or promised some improper favor in return, the circumstance has no especial significance." The idea which underlies this evidently is that for an insurance company, bank, or railroad to subscribe money to elect Tammany or Republican politicians to office is a perfectly legitimate corporation expenditure. Thirty years ago the expression of such an idea would, all over the United States, have excited widespread surprise. When the late Jay Gould, for instance, testified that he was a Republican in Republican counties, a Democrat in Democratic counties, and doubtful in doubtful counties, but always "for the Erie Railroad," it was thought to be an illustration of individual depravity. The thing has now become common, and any one curious in such matters can ascertain without difficulty the precise amounts currently reported to have been paid to each party in the late campaign in this city by one of the corporations chiefly interested.

The legal significance of a charge that money has been so paid is certainly worth examination. The view that the law takes of corporate funds is that they are the private property of the stockholders in the management of directors or trustees for a special purpose, which is stated in the charter—as, the insurance of lives, the transportation of goods and passengers, the discounting of pa-

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per. It follows from this that those directors or trustees have no power or right to use those private funds for utterly different purposes. To do anything of the sort even innocently is *ultra vires*, beyond the powers conferred in the charter. "No rule of law comes with more reasonable application" than that corporate powers are only those of the charter, says Kent; and to clinch the matter, the New York Revised Statutes (2 R. S., 9th ed., p. 978) provide that "no corporation shall possess or exercise any corporate powers not given by law, or not necessary to the exercise of the powers so given." Nothing is said by Kent, or Blackstone, or Morawetz, or in Green's Brice on *Ultra Vires*, on the subject of the right of an insurance company to contribute to the expenses of a political organization, for these writers do not discuss cases too clear for argument. The business of insuring lives has nothing to do with that carried on by Tammany Hall or Platt; the right to subscribe to campaign expenses is not given by law, nor is it necessary to the exercise of the function of issuing policies on lives given by law. Cases far less plain have been held by the courts to be clearly within the rule. Thus, when the Old Colony Railroad in Massachusetts made a subscription to guarantee the expenses of a "World's Peace Jubilee," the Supreme Court of that State held that no action could be maintained for the money, because, as lucidly explained by Gray, C. J., in an elaborate opinion, a world's peace jubilee is an enterprise "wholly outside the objects for which a railroad corporation is established" (Davis vs. Old Colony Railroad, 131 Mass., 258).

It follows from this necessarily that acts obviously *ultra vires* are not the acts of the corporation at all. The money comes out of the corporation exchequer, but the act of the director or trustee in paying it out is the act of the person who does it. He takes money which is not his, and applies it to a purpose for which it was not intrusted to him. The owners of the money, the corporation or the stockholders, must have some remedy for this, and, in fact, there are a variety of remedies. Thus, if the act is not yet complete, but only threatened, the stockholders may get an injunction (Barr vs. New York, L. E. and W. R. R. Co., 96 N. Y., 444), and if the officers of the corporations have such complete control that the corporation itself cannot be set in motion to redress the wrong, a bill for a discovery of the facts and an accounting for the moneys diverted will be sustained (Brewer vs. Boston Theatre, 104 Mass., 378).

But it is not only the stockholders who have a right to complain. In all civilized communities the diversion of funds intrusted to the care of agents to purposes other than those for which they were given, is regarded as a matter in which the public have an interest; hence it will be found that our place to look for the view taken by the law of acts not merely *ultra vires*, but involving the misappropriation of funds, is the Penal Code. As a general thing it will be found that a payment of corporate funds as a political assessment involves the commission of a crime or of a series of criminal offences. If the money were taken and handed over to the collector without its being accounted for at all, this would simply be "conversion" by a trustee, or, under section 541 of the Penal Code, larceny, punishable by a fine equal in amount to the money misappropriated with interest and 20 per cent. more, and imprisonment for a term equal to that applicable in the case of larceny, with five years added.

But of course the money is usually accounted for; and as a "politics" account would be plainly illegal, false entries must be made in the books to cover it up. "Legal expenses" is the head usually resorted to, though others may in special cases be better adapted to the end in view. When a reputable counsel is employed, he knows nothing about the matter; it is not his business to inquire. The false entry in the books is, however, also a crime. The Penal Code provides that any officer or employee of a corporation who "falsifies" any corporation accounts is guilty of forgery in the third degree, and may be punished with imprisonment for five years (sections 514, 525). It seems probable that the act of taking the money and paying it out knowingly for purposes obviously beyond the charter powers is larceny. Section 528 declares that any corporation officer or employee who appropriates any corporation funds to the use of any person "other than the true owner or person entitled to the benefit thereof," "steals such property and is guilty of larceny." If the amount misappropriated is more than $500, it is grand larceny in the first degree (section 530), and punishable with imprisonment for ten years.

But the person who collects the assessment may get the money from an unwilling corporation by threats or suggestions that some injury will be done if it is not paid. This by section 558 is the crime of blackmail, or extortion, punishable with imprisonment for five years. On the other hand, the person who pays the assessment may expect through it to influence members of the Legislature. If this is "directly or indirectly" the object of the payment, he is guilty of bribery, and is punishable by a fine of not more than $5,000, and imprisonment for not more than ten years, or both (section 66).

It will be seen that the law does not recognize any difference between blackmail obtained for one purpose and another, and, indeed, it cannot. Stockholders' property is in just as much danger at the hands of a politician who plays upon the fears of their trustees as a private fortune would be at the hands of any non-political knave who extorted money by threats of exposing family secrets; and no doubt the ruin of many a corporation has begun in campaign contributions, people who are ready to commit crimes to advance the interests of corporations being often ready to plunder them. Property exposed to such attacks is in the position of property at the mercy of a public enemy; the only limit to spoliation is his leniency.

In nine-tenths of all the payments by corporations for political purposes, fear is the operative motive, and the most effective way to put an end to them would be to put in the District Attorney's office a man who feels about political blackmail and corruption as every one does about private abuses of trust and extortion. The appearance on the scene of such an officer would no doubt be followed by the flight from the State of several persons. There would be little difficulty in getting evidence against the head of an organization out of power. But this remedy is just now a good way off, and hence it is at present only through stockholders in corporations who may object that any redress is likely to be obtained. A bill for a discovery and an accounting, where facts like those testified to by Mr. Dawson really exist and are capable of proof, would put the guilty parties in an awkward dilemma. Proof in court of acts of directors not merely *ultra vires*, but involving larceny, payment of blackmail, and forgery, would do much to make the real character of such transactions generally understood. It has just been most vigorously proclaimed by the Supreme Court of the United States, on a full review of the authorities, that it is no answer to a demand for equitable relief, when the case warrants it, that the acts complained of are also crimes (*In re* Debs, 158 U. S. 564).

RECIPROCITY WITH CANADA.

The project of a treaty of reciprocity with Canada has met with a very cordial response from the Merchants' Association of Boston. Probably the manufacturing and commercial interests of the East generally will regard it with favor, and inasmuch as the Bering Sea question is involved in it, we may expect that the sealing interest on the Pacific Coast may be counted on the same side. Apart from these special interests, it may be assumed that the large class who favored the arbitration treaty as a means of insuring peace between the two great English-speaking nations will favor reciprocity with Canada as a lesser means of bringing about the same result. Nothing works more effectively for peace than trade. Anything which pro-

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duces closer commercial intercourse diminishes the chances of war. Hence we may expect the anti-Jingo sentiment of the country to favor the proposed treaty except so far as personal and private interests are thought to be unfavorably affected by it.

It is perhaps worth while to glance at the old treaty of reciprocity negotiated by Secretary Marcy on the part of the United States and Lord Elgin on the part of Great Britain. This instrument was ratified by the Senate and confirmed by both houses of Congress in 1854, and remained in force till 1866. It provided first for the enjoyment of the in-shore fisheries of Canada and the maritime provinces and islands by the fishermen of the United States and the use of the land (except private property) for curing fish and drying nets; also for similar rights to Canadian fishermen on our coast north of the 36th parallel of latitude—shell-fish being excepted in both cases. Next it was mutually agreed that the products of the soil, the forests, mines, and fisheries, including lumber and manufactured tobacco, should be admitted free of duty. The third proviso granted to American citizens the same right of navigation of the St. Lawrence River and canals as was enjoyed by British subjects, and to Canadians equivalent rights on Lake Michigan. This did not grant the right to participate in the coastwise trade. The treaty was to continue ten years, and until twelve months after either party should give notice of its desire to terminate it. The ten years expired while the civil war was raging in the United States. During its progress the Confederate leaders had used Canada more or less as a base of operations against the Union, and thus created a feeling of irritation which led to the denunciation of the treaty by us as soon as the time came around. The commercial effects of the treaty were never made a cause of complaint in either country. Not a syllable of complaint was ever heard from the agricultural interests of the United States from first to last.

The only objection that has been raised to the new treaty up to the present time comes from the Department of Agriculture, from which we hear that the growers of barley do not want to have their "protection" cut off or lessened by the admission of Canadian barley. This, of course, raises the question whether the consumers of barley have any rights that Congress ought to respect. The brewing interest is much larger, measured by dollars and cents and by the number of hands employed, than the barley-growing interest, and, as it is pretty well organized, it will probably take care of itself in the controversy over the treaty. If it does not, it can blame nobody but itself. No doubt the lumber barons will be up in arms; perhaps the coal barons also, although they may have more to gain than to lose by the mutual abolition of duties on coal. Perhaps wool will be left out of the arrangement, although the Canadian product is not much grown in the United States. All these details we shall hear from in due time. The main fact in the case is that the McKinley Administration is in favor of a treaty looking to a relaxation of trade restrictions on our northern border.

The Dingley tariff contains provisions for treaties of reciprocity limited to five years' duration, but it does not follow that treaties cannot be negotiated outside of those limitations. Congress has the same power now that it had before. The President and two-thirds of the Senate can make such treaties as they choose. If a treaty involves a change of customs duties or the appropriation of money, then precedent requires that the House shall join in passing an act to carry it into effect. At all events, such was the case in the Marcy-Elgin treaty and in the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty of 1875. So far as this goes, it is safe to say that any treaty which can command the support of two-thirds of the Senate can generally count upon a majority of the House also. There is no reason, therefore, to expect any serious opposition from the House if the project is acceptable to the President and Senate.

It is to be hoped upon all accounts that the plan may be successfully carried through. Not only will the sealing question and the Eastern fishery question be settled by it, but the market which we now enjoy in Canada for our own surplus products, and which is threatened by the new Canadian tariff, will be saved. Canada has learned the trick of maximum and minimum tariffs and she proposes to put it into execution. The effect of it will be to give preferential rates of 25 per cent. to British, and perhaps German and Belgian, goods before the end of the present year. It is certainly worth our while to prevent this, and the terms offered by Canada in exchange are as low as we could decently ask.

A TWO-SIDED STATESMAN.

There is no episode in Tennyson's Life more interesting than that which describes his intercourse with Gladstone. They first met in 1837, by Tennyson's calling on Gladstone, as a school friend of Arthur Hallam. From that time they saw as much of each other as Gladstone's busy political life would permit. They corresponded frequently. Gladstone reviewed some of Tennyson's poems when they appeared, and offered him a baronetcy long before the peerage came. They made a voyage together in 1883 to Scotland and Norway, during which Tennyson's biographer says, "Both men were as jovial together as boys out for a holiday, but they took good care to keep off the quagmire of politics." Only on two occasions, however, did Tennyson dissent from Gladstone about politics; one was when Gladstone extended the suffrage, and the other was when he brought in his Irish Home-Rule bill. But this never caused the slightest interruption in their friendship. During the latter period, Tennyson wrote to a friend, "I love Gladstone, but I hate his policy." They agreed and sympathized about poetry and art and religion. There was no more brilliant talk in England than that which took place between them on all these subjects. In 1889 Tennyson wrote to him that "it will be a lasting pleasure to you to know that the people of England are not ungrateful for all you have done for them in days that are no more." After Gladstone's first great defeat in 1874, he wrote to him, "Even if you rested now, your name would be read in one of the fairest pages of English history." In fact, during the fifty-five years of their acquaintance, their friendship was intimate, tender, and unbroken; and with Tennyson, who lived on the loftiest moral plane, friendship was a sacred thing, not to be shared with the unworthy.

During the past sixty years, too, no man lived in a fiercer light than Gladstone, or was in more frequent intercourse with all that was best and most distinguished in English politics and society, and especially (owing both to his place as a distributor of ecclesiastical patronage and his own theological tastes) with churchmen. He made many bishops, and he had many livings to bestow. Consequently all the biographies of distinguished men, from the publication of his first book, reviewed by Macaulay, down to 1890, in both political and religious life, abound with references to him, and their letters with judgments on him. Wilberforce, Newman, Church, Jowett, Manning, Lowe, Arnold, Tait, Russell, Palmerston, Magee, Ward, Peel, Darwin, Browning, in fact all the distinguished men of the "Victorian Age," make some mention of him in their correspondence. Many find fault with his policy, or depreciate his literature, but none ever fails to speak of his character with respect, and most of them speak with tenderness and admiration. They mention faults and foibles sometimes, but only as "spots on the sun." No other English public man has played a part so prominent in public life so long, and endured the criticism of three generations. Yet no record has ever "leaped to light" by which he could be shamed.

Outside the charmed circle of London society, properly so called, he has been equally beloved and admired. No other English public man has ever wielded the same influence over the masses. One blast upon his bugle-horn has really

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been worth 10,000 men ever since he wrote the terrible letter from Naples in 1851 which smote the corrupt government of King Bomba like a thunderbolt, and really prepared the world for the Italian "risorgimento." His legislative measures surpassed in importance and beneficence everything attempted by any of his predecessors, even Pitt. Peel introduced free trade, but Gladstone framed the financial changes necessary to adapt the new system of taxation to the wants of the revenue. He restored the army to the nation by abolishing the sale of commissions (when the House of Lords blocked his bill) by the use of the royal warrant. He put an end to three hundred years of intolerance and injustice by disestablishing the Irish Church. It was his clarion voice which led to the uprising that secured their independence to Bulgaria, Servia, and Rumania, and delivered Bosnia and Herzegovina from the Moslem yoke, by preventing Disraeli from completely linking England with the Turk in 1877. As long as his vigor lasted, there was nobody in England who could stay the torrent of popular enthusiasm which burst forth whenever he touched the rock. In the course of sixty years, he changed his opinions several times, about the Church, about the franchise, about the Crimean War, about Ireland, but it was not till the home-rule period that he was accused of want of sincerity, and of interested motives. In short, he has stood, and stands to-day, before the masses in England, as the greatest English statesman since Cromwell, as the most remarkable combination of constructive capacity with debating powers the House of Commons has ever had.

We go over these things because we find, side by side with a fame of this sort, during the last ten years, in fact, ever since 1874, a completely different view of him among what are called the "upper classes" in England—that is, among persons connected with the army, among most of the rural clergy, among the whole sporting class, among persons who figure in fashionable society, as well as among those who are trying to figure in it, and among nearly all English living or sojourning in foreign countries. Nothing more surprises an American who has got his ideas of Gladstone from the newspapers and from literature, when he goes to a foreign watering-place, than to hear Gladstone always mentioned with derision, or contempt, or positive hatred, and to find this low opinion of him supported by attacks on his character, especially stories of gross immorality. Apparently refined women, often of middle age, will grow white with rage in speaking of him, and wish they could hear of his being hanged or dead. They will tell you with minuteness, as a notorious fact, of his being in the pay of the Jesuits, of his having long been secretly a Roman Catholic in good standing, of his having given large orders for things for which he could not pay, of his having left his wife on his way home from a dinner party, for a disreputable purpose. One of the best illustrative stories of this kind is of an old lady's having screamed with terror at a funeral, on hearing that Mr. Gladstone was coming, and having "hoped he would not make a disturbance." In fact, no ruffianly demagogue of any age has ever been depicted in darker colors than Mr. Gladstone in what is called English "society." It is very rarely that one can get from one of these vituperators a statement of what Gladstone has done to merit this obloquy. One lady, on being pressed on this point, about 1889, exclaimed, after some hesitation, "Look at the state of affairs in Afghanistan."

The class which started this view is probably a small one, mainly aristocratic and sporting, and connected with the army, but it has its representatives in every country house. Its hostility to Gladstone began with the abolition of purchase in the army, which, owing to the way it was done, as well as to its disregard of "vested rights," excited intense animosity. This feeling was further increased by his settlement of the *Alabama* question by arbitration, and by his refusal to keep fighting the Boers after Majuba Hill, by his opposition to Disraeli's Afghan war, and by his failure to rescue Gordon. These things made him accursed at every mess-table, and made him an "unspeakable one" to all the sisters, the cousins, and the aunts. After this came Irish home rule, in which he had, besides bearing the blame of an attempt to "dismember the Empire," to meet the dislike of the Celtic Irish which even the most enlightened English feel, and which the Irish Unionists helped to aggravate. Once it became the thing in "society" to hate Gladstone and abuse him, the work was done with a very large proportion of the well-to-do class. When one takes English society proper, and then takes, also, all who want to get into it, or be thought in it, we get the bulk of the people who give dinners and balls. The fierce hostility of the English travelling class whom one meets on the Continent in summer, and falls in with at such places as Pau and Florence in winter, is undoubtedly due, in a large number of cases at least, to the desire of people whose position at home is uncertain or unknown, to give the impression that they feel with the world of fashion, and, therefore, are probably part of it. And then we must not forget the influence of the Primrose League. For years in every "Habitation" the atrocities of Gladstone were the principal topic of conversation, and wishes for his untimely death the best mode of showing hostility to "atheism and anarchy."

The whole phenomenon would be one of the most melancholy in English history if it were not for Mr. Gladstone's splendid indifference to it all. We cannot recall anything approaching the proud and silent, not contempt, but disregard, with which he has treated it. He has over and over been insulted in large public assemblies; he has seen his name reviled in speeches and articles in terms which would hardly have been used about a criminal; he has heard himself ridiculed by men who, in a world of pure justice, would be employed in cleaning his boots, and yet we are not aware that he has ever taken the smallest notice of it. His silence has been almost majestic. No such illustration, we feel sure, is to be found in history of Wotton's picture of the man

> "Who hath his life from humors freed,
> Whose conscience is his strong retreat,
> Whose state can neither flatterers feed
> Nor ruin make accusers great."

THE DEDICATION OF THE YERKES OBSERVATORY.

AMHERST, November 8, 1897.

The installation of a huge telescope affords fitting occasion for recalling the state of astronomy before such instruments had been invented, for the progress of this science, more than any other, has always been closely associated with the development and application of mechanical processes and skill. Earlier than the seventeenth century the size of the planets could not be measured, none of their satellites except our moon were known, the phases of Mercury and Venus were merely conjectured, and accurate positions of sun, moon, and planets among the stars, and of the stars among themselves, were impossible—all because there were no telescopes. More than a half-century elapsed after the invention of the telescope before Picard combined it with a graduated circle in such a way that the measurement of angles was greatly improved. Then arose the necessity for accurate time; but, although Galileo had learned the principles governing the pendulum, astronomy had to wait for the mechanical genius of Huygens before a satisfactory clock was invented, about 1657. Nearly all the large reflecting telescopes ever built were constructed by astronomers who possessed also great facility in practical mechanics; and the rapid and significant advances in nearly all departments of astronomy during the last half-century would not have been possible except through the skill and patience of glass-makers, opticians, and instrument-builders, whose work has reached almost the limit of perfection.

Before 1860, if we except the meagre evidence from meteoric masses of stone and iron, some of which had actually been seen to fall, it is proper to say that our ignorance of the physical constitution of other worlds than ours was simply complete. The principles of spectrum analysis as formulated by Kirchhoff led the way to a knowledge of the elements composing every heavenly

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body, no matter what its distance, provided only it is giving out light intense enough to reach our eyes. But since Newton, no necessary step had been taken along this road until the way to this signal discovery was paved by the deftness of Wollaston, who showed that light could not be analyzed unless first passed through a very narrow slit; and of Fraunhofer, the eminent German optician, who first mapped dark lines in the spectrum of the sun. So, too, in our own day, the power of telescope and spectroscope has been vastly extended by the optical skill and mechanical dexterity of the Clarks, Rowland, Hastings, and Brashear, all Americans.

The development of astronomy in America exhibits three distinct and epochal stages, the first a purely practical one, an inheritance from the mother country, embodying the application of astronomical methods to the settling of disputed boundaries. Mason and Dixon's line, run in 1763-67, is the most conspicuous instance. Rittenhouse had observed the transit of Venus in 1769, and Williams of Harvard the total eclipse of the sun in 1780, but no observatory was established for nearly a half-century to come. A second period opened during the first third of the present century with the building of a private observatory by Bond at Dorchester, and the inauguration of astronomical research for its own sake by the youthful and gifted Mason at Yale in 1835. The material resources of many institutions were greatly enhanced during this period, because of two extraordinary astronomical events—one the great comet of 1843, probably the greatest comet of all past time, and the other the discovery of the planet Neptune. The American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac was founded, the National Observatory at Washington was built, and many institutions of learning were similarly equipped. In the main they have been devoted to research in exact astronomy, involving the application of mathematics to that science; and here it is that most excellent work has been accomplished—among a score of others, by Gilliss and Yarnall as trained observers, by Hubbard and Walker as expert calculators, and Hill and Newcomb as theoretical astronomers of the first order.

Nearly coincident with the civil war came the invention of a new instrument of research, the spectroscope, whose application to the problems of the universe and its constitution has changed the whole aspect of astronomical achievement, and opened a third era, unparalleled in scientific history. Especially prominent are the investigations of Young and Langley upon the sun, of Hough and Lowell upon the planets, of Brooks and Barnard upon comets, and of Draper and Pickering upon the stars. Vast has been the amplification of astronomy during the ensuing third of a century. Human interest has been enlisted more and more, because of the certain discovery that thousands upon thousands of the stars are duplicates of our own sun, and that some at least of our neighbor planets seem to be passing through cosmic stages similar to those which the earth itself experiences.

With all this widening of the astronomical horizon is impressed upon the investigator a consciousness that problems are arising faster than he can solve them. Great, then, is his joy when a new observatory is established, entering the astronomical fraternity equipped with splendid instruments, and manned with a corps of astronomers and physicists whose very names are guarantee of effective service.

Greatest of all events in this third era of American astronomy was the dedication last month of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago. Prof. Hale, its able director, arranged a programme without precedent, covering nearly an entire week, calling upon his fellow-astronomers for assistance in its execution. First there was a series of morning conferences on astronomical topics extending through four days, and all the better that they were felt to be less formal than association meetings. The most important discovery related was that of oxygen in the sun, its existence being proved beyond question by the research of Prof. Karl Runge of Hanover, who came to the dedication as an especial delegate of the German Government. France was represented by M. Henri Deslandres of Paris. Foreign institutions in other countries sent gratulatory cablegrams.

Prof. Hale did well to organize the conferences with an abundance of papers on purely physical topics; among them Hull of Colby talking on electric radiation, Crew of Evanston on the source of the characteristic spectrum of the metallic arc, and Humphreys of Charlottesville on wave-length as influenced by pressure. In astronomy, Comstock of Madison reported on his investigations of a possible lunar atmosphere; Hedrick of Georgetown exhibited plates taken with the photo-chronograph for doing away with personality in transit observations; Wadsworth, astrophysicist of the new Observatory, described a photographic meridian circle, and Poor of Johns Hopkins a new form of mirror for the reflecting telescope. The conferences, admirably planned and capitally executed, formed perhaps the most enjoyable feature of dedication week; they were, indeed, a veritable "love feast" of physics and astronomy. Afternoons were devoted to inspection of the splendid equipment of the great Observatory in every detail; and many novel demonstrations of exceeding interest were displayed, among them Mr. Brashear's optical surfaces and methods of testing them, and the grinding of a five-foot mirror actually in progress. Every one connected with the Observatory staff was assigned some part in the programme for edifying the scientific visitors; and unfavorable skies alone defeated evening exhibitions of the performance of the forty-inch telescope upon a selected list of test objects, by Profs. Burnham and Barnard.

From twenty-six eligible sites under consideration by the University, Williams Bay, on the shore of Lake Geneva, in the State of Wisconsin, was finally selected; and a lovely spot it is. Astronomically, too, all conditions appear most favorable for that region, and the activities of the new institution can hardly suffer because carried on at a distance of seventy-five miles from the huge city and the parent University. Special trains conveyed the Trustees, members of the congregation, and official guests of the University from Chicago to Williams Bay, under the especial guidance of President Harper, whose gracious vigor made him the ideal master of ceremonies. Some eight hundred in all availed themselves of this unique occasion, and the deft handling of so large a convocation displayed an executive capacity which few astronomers possess.

Under the great dome, nearly a hundred feet in diameter, all were gathered for the specific ceremony of dedication. Prof. Keeler of Allegheny delivered a comprehensive address on the "new astronomy"—more technically astrophysics—and its relations to other physical sciences, especially emphasizing the necessity for farther spectroscopic research upon sun and stars, which the new Observatory has ample equipment for prosecuting. Next came the culmination of the day's doings, when Mr. Yerkes stepped forward to express his complete satisfaction with these tangible evidences of five years' toil, and to hand over to the Board of Trustees the deeds of the entire property, practically all of which had been acquired at his charges. No benefactor of learning ever received, or could wish to receive, a warmer or more heartfelt and wholly spontaneous tribute than did Mr. Yerkes at that crowning moment. A unique situation it was—hundreds of people gathered under the sheltering arches of the vast dome, and beneath the piercing lens of the world's greatest telescope, all gratulant to the man whose well-directed munificence had provided the growing University with unsurpassed facilities for advancing knowledge of other worlds than ours. By force of sheer contrast one was minded of the famous event of 1840, when Sir William Herschel's huge telescope, no longer serviceable, was dismantled with formal ceremonies conducted by all the Herschels, "within the tube itself assembled."*

With impressive dignity President Harper then accepted this magnificent gift, on behalf of his faculty and the astronomic staff, outlining at the same time the history of its development, from the inception on October 2, 1892, when the doors of the University had been opened but three days. The policy of the new department, too, was distinctly set forth, the Observatory being closed to the general public, in order that the precious moments of the able scientific corps may not be frittered in unappreciated explanations to the merely curious. With this the dedication of the Observatory might have been expected to conclude, had not the lavish provision of Prof. Hale and the kindly hospitality of Mr. Yerkes and Dr. Harper contrived otherwise. Yet another day was given to inspection of the buildings of the University in Chicago itself, in particular of the Ryerson Physical Laboratory, where Prof. Michelson exhibited many novel effects in optics of his own devising; to a luncheon given by President and Mrs. Harper at their residence; to an able and entertaining address at the Kent Theatre by Prof. Newcomb, on the "Aspects of Modern Astronomy"; and, last of all, to a banquet by Mr. Yerkes in honor of the scientific visitors.

Prof. Newcomb's address was of that general character to be understanded of all, and he made telling allusions to the members of the Yerkes Observatory staff and their distinguishing astronomical achievements. One brief citation must suffice here:

"The most striking feature of the celebration may be the large amount of effort which it shows to be devoted to the cultivation of a field quite outside the ordinary range of human interest. A little more than two centuries ago, Huygens prefaced an account of his discoveries on the planet Saturn with the

*"We mustered fourteen," wrote Sir John to Sir William Hamilton, "but it would easily have held fourteen more."

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remark that many, even among the learned, might think he had been devoting to things too distant to interest mankind an amount of study which would better have been devoted to subjects of more immediate concern. It must be admitted that this fear has not deterred succeeding astronomers from pursuing their studies. The enthusiastic students whom we see around us are only a detachment from an army of investigators who, in many parts of the world, are seeking to explore the mysteries of creation. . . . Neither the measurement of the earth, the making of maps, nor the aid of the navigator is the main object which the astronomers of to-day have in view. If they do not quite share the sentiment of that eminent mathematician who is said to have thanked God that his science was one which could not be prostituted to any useful purpose, they still know well that to keep utilitarian objects in view would only handicap them in their work. Consequently, they never ask in what way their science is going to benefit mankind. As the great captain of industry is moved by the love of wealth and the politician by the love of power, so the astronomer is moved by the love of knowledge for its own sake, and not for the sake of its application. He is proud to know that his science has been worth more to mankind than it has cost."

Prof. Newcomb then sketched the history of astronomy in America in outline, and rounded out his admirable address with pertinent suggestions which the administration of the Observatory can hardly fail to regard in securing that eminent success everywhere expected of it.

The complimentary banquet tendered by Mr. Yerkes concluded the ceremonial of a week prognostic of inestimable scientific good. Prof. Pickering spoke to the toast on the work of observatories, Prof. Harkness responded for the Government, Prof. Comstock for neighboring observatories, and Prof. Hale for the staff of the newly inaugurated institution. To the memory of Alvan Clark, whose masterpiece, the great 40-inch object glass, was borne to its resting-place in the telescope tube only a few weeks before his death, was drunk a toast proposed by President Harper, all standing in impressive silence. Mr. Yerkes announced again his expectation concerning the future of the Observatory and its work; deprecating personal jealousies, evincing a welcome breadth of view highly acceptable to the astronomers, and justifying the belief that, in the midst of the vast and energetic community which has especial pride in this distinguishing possession, future needs of the Observatory are not to remain unsatisfied.

DAVID P. TODD.

GAGNIÈRE'S DUCHESS OF BURGUNDY.

PARIS, November 4, 1897.

After Saint-Simon, after Dangeau, it seems as if there were not much more to say about the life of the Duchess of Burgundy at Versailles. This young princess, who died in the prime of her youth, who had conquered the heart of Louis XIV. by her grace and amiability, has, however, always been a favorite subject for those who study French history. The modern historical method has revived many subjects, by research and the publication of original documents; and the discovery of even a few letters of a famous historical character appears important. We are now in possession of many such documents on the family, the infancy, the youth of Marie Adélaïde of Savoy, on her marriage, on her life in France, and finally on her death.

The Countess Della Rocca published in 1864 the inedited 'Correspondence of the Duchess of Burgundy and of the Queen of Spain.' M. Gagnière has recently completed the work of the Countess, who published chiefly the letters of the Queen of Spain and neglected those of her sister, the Duchess. His volume contains 122 letters—one hundred written by Marie Adélaïde to her grandmother, Madame Royale (born Jeanne Baptiste de Nemours), thirteen written to her father, Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, one to her brother, the Prince of Piedmont, eight to her mother, Anne d'Orléans; the only remaining letters of a voluminous correspondence which has for ever disappeared. M. Gagnière has further used the diplomatic correspondence of the Ambassadors of Venice from 1696 to 1712, and has found in it details on the life of the Duchess of Burgundy at Versailles, given by men who were, above all, interested in telling the truth. He also found in Venice a relation of the marriage of the Duchess at Paris and of the festivities which followed the marriage, and a relation of the malady and death of the Dauphin.

Marie Jeanne Baptiste of Nemours was the daughter of Charles Amadeus of Savoy-Nemours, the chief of a branch of the House of Savoy which had long been established in France. She left Versailles to marry her cousin Charles Emanuel II. of Savoy. The union was not a happy one. The Prince neglected his wife, leading a very dissolute life; he died in 1675, leaving a son, Victor Amadeus, who may be considered as the true founder of the dynasty of Savoy. Madame Royale was a woman of strong will, and when Victor Amadeus came of age, he found it difficult to assume his independence. Louis XIV. chose a wife for him, Anne Marie d'Orléans, a handsome girl of fifteen years, daughter of Monsieur and of Henrietta of England (daughter of Charles I.), who had been brought up by the second wife of Monsieur, Charlotte Elizabeth of Bavaria, famous for her correspondence, which has made us so well acquainted with Versailles and with the Court of Louis XIV. When Annie Marie d'Orléans left France, she kept up for many years an active correspondence with the Palatine, as her mother-in-law is generally called, but this correspondence has been unfortunately destroyed or lost.

Anne d'Orléans had two children, but, as they were not boys, Victor Amadeus abandoned his wife and became entangled in a fatal liaison with Madame de Verrue. In 1692, after a war between France and Piedmont, one of the articles of peace stipulated a marriage between Marie Adélaïde of Savoy and the Duke of Burgundy, eldest son of the Dauphin. The Countess de Verrue, who had really been no better than a spy while she was the recognized mistress of the Duke, had to leave Piedmont; she had borne two natural children to the Duke, but he became reconciled with his wife, who bore him in 1697, to his great joy, a son, Victor Amadeus Philip, Prince of Piedmont. In 1701 Anne d'Orléans had another son, Charles Emanuel, the only one who lived and reigned.

The young Princess of Savoy had a very difficult part to play at the court of Louis XIV. The King of France considered the Duke of Savoy as a sort of vassal, and wished to assign him a part in all the complications of European politics. The Duchess of Burgundy had to win the favor of the all-powerful Madame de Maintenon. "The Duchess du Lude," she writes to her grandmother, "is come back to me, which fills me with joy, and it is quite true that Madame de Maintenon sees me as often as possible. I think I can assure you without flattering myself that these two ladies love me. . . . I do all you order me as to Madame de Maintenon. I have much friendship for her and trust in all her advice." People had expected to see in the young Princess a semi-savage *Savoyard* (the word Savoyard is still used among the French as the equivalent of a boor); they were agreeably surprised to find her a clever, pretty, and amiable person. The Duchess very soon became mistress of the heart of the King and of Madame de Maintenon. "Those who love me as you do, my dear grandmamma, have often reason to rejoice at all the kindness of the King towards me, as he gives me marks of it every day."

Barcelona, besieged by Vendôme by land and by Admiral d'Estrées, capitulated on August 8, 1697, after a glorous defence by the Spaniards. "I have had great joy in the taking of Barcelona, my dear grandmamma, for I am a good Frenchwoman [*bonne Française*], and I feel everything that can give pleasure to the King, to whom I am as attached as you can wish." I have often marvelled at the rapidity with which princesses married out of their country can change their patriotism. In reality Marie Adélaïde merely meant to stand well with the King, and she always remained a Savoyard at heart. The winter season of 1698 was very brilliant at Fontainebleau and at Versailles; the young Princess was its queen. The King would have her in his rooms every night. "I have a good friend," she wrote, "in Madame de Maintenon, and it will not be her fault if I am not perfectly happy." The Duke of Burgundy, who was shy and timid, conceived for her a passion which ended only with his life. Marie Adélaïde became a sort of idol in the Court; her time was so much occupied with amusements that she had little left for her correspondence; her letters to her grandmother become more and more formal and brief as time goes on.

In 1702 the Duke of Burgundy left for the army in Flanders. The King took great precautions to prevent the Prince from communicating at Cambrai with his former preceptor, Fénelon, who had fallen from grace, but the young Prince succeeded in seeing him for a moment, and embraced him with much emotion. Fénelon had intended to make of him a model King, and had discussed with him great plans of reform. The correspondence of Marie Adélaïde gives us no details on the campaign in which the Duke of Burgundy played a very subordinate part. In 1703 the rupture between France and Savoy became definitive, and till 1713 the two countries remained bitterly hostile to each other. The part of the Duchess of Burgundy became very difficult; in her letters to her family she speaks only (and in very laconic terms) of the French victories, never of the French defeats; she was too prudent to expose herself to the anger of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Maintenon. Speaking of the battle of Höchstädt, gained September 20, 1703, by the Elector of Bavaria over the Imperialists, she says: "We have another reason to rejoice, my dear grandmother, in the battle which the Elector of Bavaria has gained over

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Count Styrum. I do not doubt that you already have the details of it, and I will say no more." This was not very compromising.

On the 25th of June, 1704, she had her first son, the Duke of Brittany; the King and Madame de Maintenon were with her all the time. The child died in convulsions on the 12th of April; the Princess was overwhelmed with sorrow. She had soon other troubles; the siege of Turin, the flight of her family to Genoa, the dangers which her father incurred with Prince Eugène in their struggle against her uncle, the Duke d'Orléans, kept her in a constant state of anxiety. "We all need great courage," she says, "to bear such violent pains as we have suffered for some time." Her father became very ill at Embrun during a march on Toulon, and was abandoned by his own generals. The Duchess had a second Duke of Brittany, on the 8th of January, 1706, as frail as the first, and destined not to live.

The Duke of Burgundy was in Flanders with Vendôme, who did all he could to destroy him in the King's estimation, in the interest of the King's bastards. He had to be the witness of great military misfortunes and to assume great responsibilities without having any real powers. Vendôme went so far as to accuse the King's grandson of cowardice. The Duke of Burgundy bore everything with Christian fortitude. The unfortunate Duchess had to take up his defence. She was herself accused by the friends of Vendôme of having spoken ill of various members of the royal family, and was obliged to beg Mme. de Maintenon to protect her against them. There are some curious letters on these delicate subjects in a very rare volume published in 1822 by Firmin-Didot: 'Lettres de Louis XIV. à Madame de Maintenon imprimées pour MM. les Bibliophiles Français.' In one of the letters in this volume, written by the Duke of Burgundy from the camp of Lovendeghem August 27, 1703, to Mme. de Maintenon, he says: "It will be for you, Madame, when I see you, to enlighten me further, that I may take proper precautions lest the Duchess of Burgundy fall into infinitely dangerous snares. . . . Her mind is very deficient in what is called *esprit de femme*. She has a solid intellect, much good sense, an excellent and very noble heart; but you know her better than I do, and the portrait is useless." You can read in these lines the great affection which the Duke entertained for his wife. The influence of Mme. de Maintenon is very perceptible in the letters which the Duchess writes in the years 1708, 1709; her style is better, the expression of her ideas becomes more elegant. Mme. de Maintenon was an admirable letter-writer, and she was the real teacher of the Savoyard Princess. The Duchess, in those troubled years, had but one desire, peace; she grieved to have France and her country at war. Her husband had not revealed himself a great general. Her health became very delicate; she had another child in 1710, the Duke d'Anjou, who became later Louis XV.

The Duchess died February 13, 1712, after a seven-days' illness. The Duke could not be with her in her last moments; he had taken his wife's illness and died himself on February 18. Their son, the Duke of Brittany, followed them a few days afterwards to Saint-Denis. The Duke d'Anjou escaped only because his governess, the Duchess de Ventadour, refused to have him cared for by the doctors. People spoke of poison, and went so far as to accuse the Duke d'Orléans; it is well known now that the Dauphin, his wife, and their child were the victims of a virulent disease. The best proof of the innocence of the Duke d'Orléans is the care which he took as Regent of the young Louis XV.

THE RAWLINSON MSS. IN THE BODLEIAN LIBRARY.—II.

LONDON, October, 1897.

MASON, Capt. John: *v.* New Hampshire.

Conveyance to him of New Hampshire; 7 Nov. 1629 (*copy*), C. 379. 1. —— 22 Apr. 1635, *ib.* 20. Report of the attorney general upon his title; 8 Nov. 1660 (*copy*), *ib.* 5b. Notes on his settlement, *ib.* 12b.

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MATHEWES, Samuel, governor of Virginia. Signature; 1656, A. 45. 174.

MILLER, Benjamin, schoolmaster at Staten Island, New York. Petition to the bishop of London for assistance to return to New York; *temp. Geo. I*, B. 376. 328.

MITTON, Roger. Receipt for 20*l.* granted on his going as chaplain to Virginia; 15 Nov. 1689, A. 306. 69.

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NANFAN, Capt. John, lieut.-gov. of New York: *vide* Basse, Jerem. Champante, John, junior. New York.

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Act respecting jurors; 1713, C. 933. 91.

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Proceedings in a case in the court of Admiralty; 1696, B. 383. 387.

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Memorial to Q. Anne signed by 12 merchants of N. York complaining that captains of ships of war trade to the West Indies with provisions; 12 Feb. 1711, A. 272. 266. Letter to J. Champante from the Gov. and Council appointing him agent for the province: 23 July, 1715, *ib.* 275.

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and S. Carolina: *v.* Scarburgh, Charles. Virginia.
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PASSENGER, Capt. William. Captures a French pirate in Lyn-Haven bay, Virginia; May, 1700. A. 271. 45, 48. Order to him from the lieut.-gov. of Virginia, with his Deposition respecting the capture, A. 272. 89b, 91.
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PENN, Margaret, widow of Sir W. Penn. Petition to the King, A. 185. 357. Her case, *ib.* 445.
PENN, Solomon. Receipts for his pension of 10*s.* per week; 1690-1, A. 306. 189, 198, 205, 216.
PENN, Admiral Sir William, knt.: *v.* Fearmes, H., Navy. Gunman, Christ. Pepys, S.
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Account to the Council of his voyage to, and proceedings in, the W. Indies; 12 Sept. 1655, A. 30. 271-8.
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PEYSTER, Colonel Abraham de, New York: *v.* Champante, John, junior.
Letter from him, G. Shelley, and Roger Brett, to J. Champante, respecting the contract for paying the soldiers at N. York; 20 Feb, 170 5-6, A. 272. 235.
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PONTCHARTRAIN, —— de, Secr. of State in France. Official letter from him to the Marq. de Vaudreuil, gov. of New France, respecting the cession of Newfoundland, etc. to the English; 6 May, 1713, *Fr.* (*copy*), A. 285. 79. Similar letter to M. Phelippeaux, gov. of the French W. Indies, respecting the cession of St. Christopher's; (*copy*), *ib.* 79b.
Son caractère; 1699, A. 326. 186b.
POPPLE, William, secr. to the Comm. of Trade, *v.* Lowndes, William.
Seven official Notes to J. Champante, relative to the affairs of New York, etc.; 1700-1704, A. 272. 85, 118, 157, 176-8, 182-4, 197, 203. Official letter to the gov. of New Hampshire; 13 Feb. 172½ (*copy*), C. 379. 31b.
PRINCE, John, M.A., Sydney Sussex coll., Cambridge. Bond that he will serve in America when and where the bp. of London may think fit to send him; 15 Jan. 1716, B. 376. 101,
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VAUGHAN, Major William, agent for New Hampshire. Petition to Queen Anne against Sam. Allen and J. Usher, lieut. gov. of N. Hampshire; 1703, C. 128. 8. Reasons in confirmation of his petition against J. Usher, *ib.* 1. Memorial to the Commissioners of Trade in behalf of N. Hampshire; 1703 (*copy*), *ib.* 32.
Letter to C. Phipps; 15 Nov. 1706 (*copy*), C. 379. 10b.
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Instructions for R. Denis, R. Bennet, T. Stagge, and W. Clabourne, appointed commissioners for reducing Virginia to the Parl.; 1651, A. 10. 6, 7.
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YARDLEY, Francis, Linne-Haven, Virginia. Letter to John Farrar; 8 May, 1654 (*copy*), A. 14. 84.
YOUNG, Capt. John. Letter to Col. John Scott; Boston, N. E., 12 June, 1663, A. 175. 116.

Correspondence.

THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to Mr. G. Dock's letter (*Nation*, No. 1686, p. 318), I am able to give very positive evidence. A high official

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of the Russian Censorship told me some time ago that M. Leroy-Beaulieu's 'L'Empire des Tsars' was indeed prohibited in Russia; the entire works of Renan and of Zola share the same fate. But, he added, no respectable person or student who appeals to our office for permission to purchase such works meets with refusal. The case is, in fact, quite analogous to that of the works prohibited by the Catholic Church: any Roman Catholic who, pursuing serious aims, wishes to read Renan's 'Vie de Jésus,' is sure to get the necessary authorization from his spiritual guides. It is a fact of daily experience.—Truly yours,

SALOMON REINACH.

CHÂTEAU DE ST. GERMAIN-EN-LAYE,
October 30, 1897.

Notes.

Dr. Isidore Singer purposes editing in twelve quarto volumes, with the "collaboration of more than two hundred of the most illustrious Jewish and Christian scholars," an 'Encyclopædia of the History and Mental Evolution of the Jewish Race.' There will be about 2,000 illustrations. Dr. Singer may be addressed at No. 7-11 New Chambers Street, New York.

One of the early abolitionists (as a Covenanter, an abolitionist *ex officio*), the Rev. N. R. Johnston, is about to publish his reminiscences, under the title 'Looking Back from the Sunset Land; or, People Worth Knowing.' It will make a volume of several hundred pages, with illustrations. Mr. Johnston's address is No. 1024 East Thirtieth Street, Oakland, California.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. announces 'The New Fiction, and Other Essays on Literary Subjects,' by H. D. Traill.

Thomas Whittaker will add to his "Theological Educator" series 'The Ritschlian Theology and the Evangelical Faith,' by Prof. James Orr.

New Mexico has several sorts of landscapes and many sorts of people. 'For the Love of Tonita, and Other Tales of the Mesas,' by Charles Fleming Embree (Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.), well enough depicts one landscape-type—the one which soonest impresses the visitor by rail; but his stories are hardly racy of the soil. His local characters are other people moving among the mesas. New Mexican Mexicans, cowboys, "holdups," French exiles, and "tenderfeet" do not in life all talk off the same cylinder; and the author's medium for their speech is not New Mexican of any complexion. The Mexican girl, in whose little world such class distinctions are absolutely unknown, does not break her heart over a "taint" of Indian blood. Such cowboys and stage-robbers as are Mr. Embree's would be, amid New Mexico, strangers in a strange land. His characters are not uninteresting, but they would do just as well anywhere else—and, in many lands, better.

While it is well known to all students of modern mathematics that the ancient problems of squaring the circle, duplicating the cube, and trisecting any angle admit of no solution by elementary geometry, the great mass of teachers either are unaware of this fact, or are unfamiliar with the nature of the proof. It was on this account that Prof. Klein of Göttingen gave a series of lectures upon the subject, in 1894, which appeared the following year under the title 'Vorträge über ausgewählte Fragen der Elementargeometrie.' So immediate was the recognition of the value of this little work that it appeared in French last year, and soon after in Italian. It is gratifying to learn that its appearance in English is the result of its appreciation in America. The translation ('Famous Problems in Elementary Geometry'), by Profs. Beman and Smith (Boston: Ginn & Co.), is felicitous, and in general appearance the book is decidedly superior to the German, French, and Italian editions. Certainly no teacher of geometry can afford to be without this treatise, which has attracted such universal attention since the publication of the German edition.

The Selden Society sends out vol. ii. of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty,' edited by Mr. Marsden, and dealing with the years 1547-1602, a period highly important both to the jurisdiction of the court and to many doctrines of English law. The materials here contained for the history of the law of insurance, bottomry, prize, contraband, neutral rights, salvage, wreck, conflict of laws, carriers, and commercial law generally, are novel and interesting. The question of May *vs.* Burdett, in 1846, "Is a monkey a dangerous animal?" was before the Admiralty Court in 1642 (lxxxii.). The traditional phrase "act of God" appears in these records as "so pleased God" or "the hand of God" (lxxxi.). In the fourteenth century the common-law courts had no jurisdiction to redress a tort committed abroad or a breach of a charter party made abroad (xliii.). The history of the harsh old doctrine that wrecked goods were divested from their owner is here traced (xxxix.). There was a time when the right to contract with a salvor for his reward was disputed by officials greedy of fees (xxxvii.). The important part taken by Italians, Dutch, and other foreigners in teaching the methods and legal ideas of modern commerce to the then relatively unenlightened English is illustrated by the frequency of foreign names in the commercial litigation. The history of the rule of division of loss (a specialty of Mr. Marsden's) is given on p. lxxxiii. The giving to ships such names as *Jesus, The Saviour, Holy Ghost, Angel Gabriel, Blessing of God, Virgin Mary* suggests something of the different attitude towards religion which then prevailed. What with the sidelights upon the Armada, the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, Hawkins the sea-fighter, Drake, Walsingham, and others, the pages have an interest for every student of history.

The Hallowell Co. of Philadelphia has issued a compact volume of 270 pages prepared by Major H. C. Groome, Adjutant-General of the First Brigade of the Pennsylvania National Guard, which has been officially recommended for the guidance of the troops of that State. Without claim to originality, the author has so ably condensed the numerous existing works on military organization, discipline, topography, sketching, the care of the health, firing, signalling, etc., etc., as to make his volume a veritable Baedeker to the duties of the citizen soldier, of value to militiamen in every State because of its comprehensiveness and reliability.

The attention of those seeking a more intimate acquaintance with seventeenth-century France should be called to a sumptuous volume in small folio by Émile Bourgeois of the École Normale Supérieure: 'Le Grand Siècle: Louis XIV. Les Arts; Les Idées' (Paris: Hachette). The text is in the main taken from the second half of Voltaire's 'Siècle de Louis-XIV.' (beginning in chap. xxv., p. 283, Garnier's edition), supplemented by extracts from Saint-Simon, Mme. de Sévigné, La Bruyère, and others. But the value of the book consists more especially in the exquisite illustrations, six to seven hundred in number, derived from many public and private sources. They represent men and women, buildings and gardens, interiors, specimens of furniture, articles of luxury and utility, costumes, scenes from life, etc., and furnish in their ensemble a genuine tableau of the age.

We have to record the testimony of a distinguished and experienced specialist for nervous diseases as unequivocally in favor of the higher education for women. Dr. Otto Dornblüth, in 'Die Geistigen Fähigkeiten der Frau' (Rostock: Werther), partly invalidates the contrary opinions of certain university professors cited in 'Die Akademische Frau,' which we noticed a year ago. While contributing little that is new to the question—which, it seems, will not be allowed to rest till the battle is won in Germany as well as here—he disposes of several objections with such calm assurance and impartiality that the very tone of the treatise, coming from such a source, seems to augur well for the future.

Angelo Mosso's 'Fisiologia dell' Uomo sulle Alpi' (Milan: Treves) is an interesting series of studies made on Monte Rosa, showing the effects of high altitudes on the muscles, respiration, the action of the heart, the circulation of the blood, the brain, the nervous system, respiration, digestion, and the bodily organs and functions generally. The work is well written and profusely illustrated.

Paolo Luotto's elaborate work, entitled 'Il Vero Savonarola ed il Savonarolo di L. Pastor' (Florence: Le Monnier), is a thorough exposure of the ignorance and prejudice shown by L. Pastor in his account of the character and career of the Florentine reformer in the third volume of his 'Storia dei Papi dalla Fine del Medio Evo.' The vindication is admirable in spirit and most convincing in its allegations of fact. The author is evidently animated, not by the love of controversy, but by a sincere regard for historical truth and a strong sense of justice.

After a full year's delay comes the second of the costly fascicules of the 'Codice Diplomatico Dantesco,' prepared by Biagi and Passerini, under the auspices of the Italian Dante Society. The third, fourth, and fifth fascicules are in press. All four are taken up with the reproduction, both in print and by photograph, of the portions of the Florentine records that concern Dante's share in politics. It is interesting to notice that, of these ten documents, eight have come to light within the last twenty years, and two have been quite recently discovered by the editors—both in a volume of the records which previous investigators had searched, and one on the very page on which a previous find had been made.

We have received from the British Museum an excerpt from its General Catalogue embracing its Shaksperiana — 'Catalogue of Printed Books: Shakespeare (William).' It is a small folio of 232 columns on half as many pages, and the catchword throughout is Shakespeare, with references to the re-

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spective authors and editors. This, apart from the entire Catalogue, would impede research more than it does if it were not for a table of contents for the classification, and an index to the several plays. Even so, it is not quite clear why, under Concordances and Dictionaries, the entry should be, "*See* BARTLETT (J.), A New and Complete Concordance," etc., while the same author's 'Phrase-book' is entered without the preliminary reference, a full column below, among works equally amenable to author-entry. The appendix consists of Biography, Bibliography, Criticism, Bacon Controversy, Collier Controversy, Ireland Forgeries, Pictorial Illustrations, Anniversary and Centenary Celebrations, Miscellaneous. We are not informed to what an extent this separate publication from the General Catalogue has been or is proposed to be carried, but the utility of the scheme is obvious, and every library should desire to procure these brochures as an addition to its resources.

Of like character with their Ian Maclaren Calendar is Dodd, Mead & Co.'s Shakspere Calendar for 1898, compiled by two ladies and well illustrated by a third. The general appearance is elegant.

To his numerous calendars for the present season R. H. Russell, New York, adds in four sheets one containing as many cartoons by Frederic Remington—drawings from that Western and Southwestern field which he has so conspicuously made his own. These mounted Indians, in civilized and savage attire, seem to us among the best of the products of this artist's prolific pencil.

The first number of *Literature*, bearing in this country the imprint of the Harpers, does not offend by thundering in the index—unless the clatter of the hoofs of the steeds in Mr. Kipling's poem, "White Horses," be taken for thunder. Apart from this poem, and Mr. Birrell's not very striking paper on criticism, this initial number has no showy bid to make for public favor. All the better and more promising for that, will be the verdict of the sensible, who will see in the book-notices an earnest of sober work and a fulfilment of the pledges made in behalf of the new weekly. One slight awkwardness in the taking over of the English sheets appears on p. 26, where it is stated that the advertising pages number 32—the real number in the American edition being 9.

In the *American Historical Review* for October a good theme, "The Development of the Love of Romantic Scenery in America," is rather inconclusively treated by Mary E. Woolley. Nevertheless, her diligent search in journals and books of travel during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in particular will probably deter other investigators from going over the same barren field. Suggestive, rather than authoritative, is the paper by George H. Haynes on "The Causes of Know-nothing Success in Massachusetts." As a panic movement, Know-nothingism must be set beside the silver craze, and even beside protectionism (with its more selfish admixture). In Massachusetts it broke up the old political order, to which the Whigs had given a respectability almost aristocratic, at a moment when the Whig party was disappearing for want of something which is better than respectability—courage and independent principle. On the main and already absorbing national question of slavery, the Know-nothings had no advantage in these qualities over the Whigs; and that "two-handed engine at the door" had only to smite once to put an end to both of them. The *Review* contains also a posthumous chapter on the Prussian campaign of 1758, by the late Prof. Herbert L. Tuttle, and a decisive review of the legend of the invention of the cotton gin, prefatory to some interesting correspondence on the subject between Eli Whitney, his family, and associates.

In the last two issues of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (vol. vi, trimestre 4, and vol. vii, trimestre 1), the publication of the transactions of this vigorous young society is brought up to June, 1897. The President, Dr. Luis Carranza, reviews the work accomplished during the year 1896, which has been very important. Committees appointed to study the effect of high altitudes upon the human organism have been investigating the respiration, chest measurements, condition of the blood, etc., of indigenes and others, and will report within the year. Señor Balta has undertaken geological investigations in Carabaya, the centre of recent activity in gold-mining, with the result so far that he has discovered graptolites and other fossils indicative of Lower Silurian, and possibly Cambrian, age, pushing the geological history of Peru farther back than was previously known or expected. The institution of Geographical Centres, or branches of the main body in Lima, is a new feature, which is apparently yielding excellent results. Centres have been established in Piura, Tarma, Cuzco, and Arequipa (Dr. Bailey, Director of the Harvard Observatory at that point, being its chairman), and another is contemplated at Puno, which will naturally contribute observations on the geography, climatology, and archæology of Lake Titicaca. The intellectual stimulus of these centres is said to be very great, and already a number of valuable papers have been thus called forth, which are reproduced in the Bulletins.

The ethnological and linguistic section of the Society has been peculiarly active, among the papers in the two last numbers of the *Boletin* being "The Root *Chi* in Various American Languages," by Dr. Pablo Patrón; "Vocabulary of the Campas Tribes," by D. Eulogio Delgado; "Characters of the American Languages and of the Keshua in Particular," by Dr. Leonardo Villar; and "The Sumu Indians of Nicaragua," by Courtenay DeKalb. The continuation of Raimondi's Itinerary should be noted, as also a valuable account from all points of view of the Province of Huánuco, by a well-informed writer who conceals his identity. It is regrettable that the Society has lost its Government subsidy of 2,400 *soles* a year, which will considerably restrict its opportunities for usefulness, for a time at least.

The public mind in Germany has been intensely excited by the unusual number of railroad accidents that have occurred during the past summer in different parts of the Empire. According to official statistics, there were in the month of July alone 226 accidents, resulting in the death of 60 and the more or less severe injury of 154 persons. This would give an average of one accident to 110 miles of track. This deplorable state of things is due to an inopportune spirit of economy, which leads the administration to employ common workmen as brakemen, and stokers as engineers, because they are cheaper. That this parsimony is wholly unnecessary is evident from the fact that the railroads turn into the treasury a yearly surplus of more than 400,000,000 marks. It is also true that no expense is spared in order to insure the safety of royal and imperial trains, and this circumstance adds to the popular indignation.

The recent first appearance of a comedy by the Norwegian dramatist Gunnar Heiberg, best known as the author of "King Midas," was, according to Christiania papers, accompanied by disorders of the most violent kind. The play is entitled "Folkeraadet [The People's Council or Parliament]," and is a keen satire on modern parliamentary methods in Norway. Tin horns were freely used by the indignant supporters of legislative government "as she is practised," and the author's appearance on the stage was greeted with an enthusiasm that would have been more flattering had its motives been less mixed. As a work of literature, "The People's Council" is reported as being disappointing, not approaching in force of characterization the earlier drama.

The American publishers of Gadow's 'In Northern Spain,' reviewed in our last issue, are, as we should have noted, the Macmillan Co.

—For the second time, Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich has the distinction of a uniform edition of his Writings—now called "The Riverside Edition," and in eight volumes, of which two are of verse (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In form and workmanship they should satisfy any genuine literary ambition, and, so far as the poetry is concerned, it includes all that Mr. Aldrich wishes to be associated with his name, plus the customary pieces in which the public's judgment has overruled the maker's, and which cannot well be withdrawn. Such a fate is almost inevitable even for those who, as Mr. Aldrich says in one of his quatrains, with a personal application if not intent, strive that "the diamond with its own rich dust Be cut and polished." Mr. Aldrich being, as his two portraits from recent photographs by Cox show him to be, still well preserved, it cannot be thought that we have here a definitive assembling of his literary productions. But were it so, the mere bulk of these would place him first in the line of succession to Emerson, Lowell, and Holmes, to say nothing of Longfellow and Whittier, whose prose was disproportionate to their verse. The muse, whether of Bret Harte or of Mr. Howells, is too attenuated to admit them to the contest for the American laureateship, while Mr. Aldrich's nearer rivals either shine in verse alone or have not aggregated so large a prose output. Whatever opinion may be held as to the true heir apparent of the worthies named, and as to the measure of the gulf between him and them, no one can peruse Mr. Aldrich's poems without being struck with the fact that he belongs to a new generation, with scarcely a feather's weight of the moral burden of the bards of the forties. The initiated may read this to a nicety in the "Monody on the Death of Wendell Phillips," and in the "Shaw Memorial Ode" with which the second volume concludes; pure artifice, we are tempted to say. It is not without significance that, but for Bret Harte and his Heathen Chinee, not a single one of the poets now nearest the front in years and in the quality of their work figures in the final edition (1891) of Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations.'

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—A sumptuous large quarto (Edward Arnold), by Mr. Albert Hartshorne, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, deals with a neglected subject, 'Old English Glasses.' Not content with giving the first account of glass drinking-vessels in England from early times to the end of the eighteenth century, Mr. Hartshorne also sketches, by way of introduction, the vicissitudes of the making of glasses on the Continent—a topic not hitherto dealt with in English. The documentary evidence on which this work is based fills many pertinent footnotes, and occupies a most ample appendix, while the actual glasses figured require 366 cuts, showing their subjects usually at one-third of the original size, and 67 full-sized plates in lithography. Of the beauty of these last, which are veritable facsimiles of the originals, too much can hardly be said. It is possible, Mr. Hartshorne thinks, that Roman glass was actually made in Britain, but this is more problematical than the equally disputed production there of rude glass vessels in Anglo-Saxon times. Several specimens found since 1851 are figured, and it is made out that they can hardly have been imported. Still, no artistically beautiful glasses were made in England, apparently, until the sixteenth century. Three post-Roman glasses which are pictured, class themselves as Merovingian, and were made probably on the upper Rhine. Later on, the choice glasses were Oriental or Venetian, and finally Flemish. A beautiful Oriental cup known as the "Luck of Edenhall," is figured, and the striking legend connected with its name is given by our author.

—The renaissance of glass-making in England, brought about by workmen from Venice, whose sojourn lasted from 1549 to 1551, was the beginning of better things. Verzelini came a little later, and then gentlemen glassmakers from Normandy and Lorraine, but the real creator of English glass-making was Vice-Admiral Sir Robert Mansell, who embarked capital in glass-making, employed able men like James Howell in his enterprise, and made various technical improvements. When Mansell died it was becoming impossible to ignore English glass-making, and no Frenchman could longer maintain that the English drank "out of their boots." In his ninth chapter, Mr. Hartshorne examines the household inventories of Lord William Howard, Dorothy Dame Shirley, and many others. So curious and startling are the glimpses which he thus gains into the privacies of seventeenth-century life that he more than justifies, even for the untechnical reader, his minute antiquarian study of glasses. The eighteenth century remains. Here documents are few and insignificant, but the actual number and variety of glasses is enormous. One of the master strokes in the work is the clear and convincing classification of eighteenth-century glasses. Mr. Hartshorne, in establishing these sixteen classes, has made a very solid contribution to the scientific study of his topic. Still, the untechnical reader will be more competent to appreciate the chapter on Jacobite glasses. This chapter is full of the most curious and entertaining matter, and cannot fail to delight all who care for picturesque and eccentric historical details.

—It is now more than fifty years since Antoine Frédéric Ozanam published his examination of the philosophy of Dante, viewed in its connections with scholastic philosophy in general. The success of the book, 'Dante et la Philosophie catholique au 13me siècle,' as it is called, was immediate, and several French editions of it appeared. It was further soon translated into Italian and into German. Ozanam's position as a protagonist of romantic Neo-Catholicism gave it a wide public; and his really broad and deep scholarship gave it authority even among those very remote from his religious views. It became at once the recognized source of information in regard to Dante's philosophy and theology; and its genuine value is proved by the fact that, in spite of the remarkable activity of Dante students in the past two generations, no one has succeeded in superseding it. Many details of Dante's intellectual obligations both to the ancients and to his scholastic predecessors have been cleared up of late years, but the general results obtained by Ozanam have remained unshaken. And it may still be said that every serious student of the poet must keep Ozanam constantly in his hands. This being so, it is remarkable that in England and America, both countries whose higher life in our century has been profoundly affected by the study of Dante, no translation of Ozanam's work should have appeared. Even if students proper found the French form better suited to their wants, one would suppose that the widespread popular study of the 'Divine Comedy' would have caused the need of such a book to be felt and supplied. Indeed, treatises far inferior in every way have met with a considerable sale. The fact remains, however, that until now the English student of Dante who reads French with difficulty or not at all, has had to do without this aid. It is a real service, then, that Mrs. Lucia D. Pychowska has done for the diffusion of a sound knowledge of the poet in her version from the French of this valuable book (New York: The Cathedral Library Association). Obviously engaged with a labor of love, she has made a translation which is at once readable and generally faithful to the original. Some perplexity in the rendering of the subtleties of scholastic terminology we have observed here and there, but little that is really misleading to the reader. Our only serious regret is that careless proof-reading of the notes has left a good many references inexact.

—*Science* reprints the concluding portion of the address on "Improvident Civilization" which was given at Detroit by the Vice-President of the Social and Economic Science Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In this it is urged that the time is ripe for at least making a beginning towards obviating that extremely improvident feature of existing civilization—the diversity of languages that exists between the great nations of the world. The amount of labor that is entailed in all matters of commerce and of learning by this diversity is only too obviously a thing to be deplored; the interesting point is that, from the action taken by the above-named body at the close of the address, it is considered by a respectable number of learned men that there is a possibility of diminishing it, without waiting for the time when one nation shall have swallowed up all others by way of conquest. The plan proposed is that the important countries should fix upon some one language to be used as an alternate language; that the study of this language (together with the native language of the country) should be made compulsory in schools, and that all documents for interlingual use, such as passports, navigation charts, and astronomical codes, postage stamps, money orders, letters of credit, coins, tables of metric systems, and various other things, should be inscribed in both media. This would form a beginning which might be expected to lead to important consequences. The work of the world is becoming daily more and more international and interlingual; for scientific purposes no less than for commerce the urgent need for a common code of communication is sure to be more and more strongly felt; and once the chosen language were fixed upon, it could be trusted to make rapid strides towards adoption.

—If the Germans had already shown so much feeling for international solidarity (or for the plain dictates of good sense) as to be willing to give up their black-letter text, more might be hoped from them in the way of adopting a secondary language other than their own. But it is well known that Bismarck, at the time when his word was law, pronounced forcibly against a change which was already making much headway, on account of his desire to foster an enthusiasm for everything of a national character. It was only the scientific people who were able to hold out against this strong pressure, and it is chiefly scientific books that are to-day printed in Germany in Roman text. The scientific people, with their overwhelming accumulation of printed matter, and with the interest which they already take in the promotion of uniformity in classification and nomenclature, must be depended upon to start this most revolutionary reform, if it is to be started at all.

THE MYCENÆAN AGE.

The Mycenæan Age: A Study of the Monuments and Culture of pre-Homeric Greece. By Dr. Chrestos Tsountas and Prof. J. Irving Manatt. With an introduction by Dr. Dörpfeld. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. Pp. xxxi, 417. $6.

Of the two authors of this book, Professor Manatt of Brown University is known as a most enthusiastic student of all that pertains to Greece, and his four years' residence in that country as United States Consul during Mr. Harrison's Administration gave him excellent opportunities which were well used for acquiring familiarity with the objects of which the book treats. His style is facile and picturesque. To Tsountas, however, belongs the lion's share of the credit for the learning of the work. Of all men he is best qualified to write of the Mycenæan Age. Not only is he an erudite scholar, but for ten years he has conducted in person the most important excavations having to do with prehistoric civilization in Greece. His name has come to stand by the side of those of Schliemann and Dörpfeld, and many look upon him as already designated to succeed Kabbadias as Ephor-General of Antiquities for the Kingdom of Greece.

The basis of this work is Tsountas's Μυκῆναι καὶ Μυκηναῖος Πολιτισμός (Mycenæ and Mycenæan Civilization), published in 1893, which, being written in modern Greek, was sealed not only to the general reader but also to many archæologists, while its plan was unsatisfactory, having been

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modified in the course of its composition. This book was translated into English by Dr. Newhall, and then revised, rearranged, and in part rewritten by Dr. Manatt, with large amplifications and supplements, to which the original author contributed. The rearrangement and new division of topics has been well done, and the improvement in the book is great, but of course the reader cannot tell how much of the new material was furnished by Tsountas, except as he is informed that Tsountas wrote the new chapter on Mycenæan writing, and his colaborer that on the Mycenæan World and Homer. The uncertainty of source is increased since the Greek author is sometimes referred to by name, while at other times he speaks of his discoveries with the editorial "we," in which the American author is not included. The new illustrations are many, important, and good, although the "half-tone" figures of Mycenæan gems are unsatisfactory, and in some of the plans the lettering is indistinct. One or two of Chipiez's restorations might well have been added.

Classical scholars, archæologists, and all educated readers will welcome this clear and readable account of what is now known of the early civilization of Greece. During the last quarter of a century, excavations have brought to light a great mass of facts with regard to the life of the people in Greece, the Greek islands, and the northwestern corner of Asia Minor, near the close of the second millennium before Christ, but hitherto no satisfactory and comprehensive statement of these facts has been made in English. To the cosmopolitan Schliemann we owe the foundations for the "science of the spade"; but for his work at Hissarlik and Mycenæ, the Germans might not have excavated the site of Olympia, nor the Americans that of the Argive Heræum, nor would the French now be digging at Delphi. Schliemann, however, was himself far from scientific in his early work, although, urged by unbounded enthusiasm and guided by like confidence in the Homeric poems, his efforts were crowned with success. At first, naturally enough, he did not appreciate better than others the nature and difficulty of his task, and thought to settle the question of the site of Homeric Troy by scratching the ground for a few days with the mattocks of a half-dozen laborers, without carts or barrows, on the hill where twenty years later he had three tram-roads to carry off the dirt dug by his men. Thus his reports of his excavations, though published with most praiseworthy promptness, were not exact and clear until he secured the assistance of Dörpfeld for the work at Tiryns and later for Troy. The endeavor to obtain from Schliemann's first three books a clear idea of what had been done and found (except in the way of treasure and vases) at Hissarlik, was a maddening task, and these books have now no value for the general reader, and only historical interest for the archæologist.

With all his success Schliemann sometimes blundered, and his opinions erred; he destroyed important structures at Hissarlik because they seemed to be in the way of his finding Homeric Troy; he was not thorough in his examination of the mound raised over the ashes of the Greek warriors at Marathon, and supposed that he had proved it not to be what it really was; he would have abandoned the excavation of the pit-graves in the circular enclosure at Mycenæ in which the great treasures of Mycenæan wealth were found (Tsountas says in a note in his original work), if it had not been for the urgency of the Greek Ephor; he believed to the day of his death that the Homeric Troy was the second stratum from the virgin soil at Hissarlik, while Dörpfeld found, after only a little additional and independent work, that the sixth layer presented unmistakable indications of a civilization akin to that at Mycenæ, and hence was the city for which Schliemann had looked for more than a score of years.

In 1889 Dr. Schuchhardt made an excellent book, with many plates and cuts, on Schliemann's excavations, which was well translated into English by Miss Sellers two years later; but while to some extent Schuchhardt illustrated Schliemann's discoveries by comparisons from other fields, his book was far from being a systematic presentation of what was known about the civilization of the Mycenæan age, but rather, as its title declared to be its aim, discussed successively Schliemann's different excavations. In 1892 Prof. Percy Gardner of Oxford published a book entitled 'New Chapters in Greek History,' valuable and suggestive, but intended only "to give a rough outline" of the "historical results of recent excavations in Greece and Asia Minor." He wrote on Phrygia and Troas, Mycenæ and the Islands, the palace at Tiryns, recent discoveries and the Homeric poems, ancient Cyprus, Naucratis and the Greeks in Egypt, etc., but did not undertake to paint a picture of the life in prehistoric Greece. The discussion of Hissarlik as the site of Homeric Troy lay then of course still under the influence of the view that the second or burned city was the Homeric Troy, and the author naturally found great difficulty in connecting the remains of (perhaps) 2000 B. C. with the much later and more highly developed civilization of Mycenæ. He thought the kings of Mycenæ might have been of Phrygian extraction, but even then "Agamemnon would be as truly Greek as George III. was English." With good reason he supposed the Dorian invasion of Peloponnesus (about 1100 B. C.) to have been a slow process instead of a sudden incursion.

During the five years since Gardner's 'New Chapters' appeared, continued discussions and excavations have done much toward the solution of vexed problems. After the exposition in 'The Mycenæan Age,' few will doubt that the civilization here set forth is that of Greeks, and that its art was native, and, though under the influence of the art of Egypt and the East, not dominated by these. That the people who bore this civilization had wealth and power in Bœotia, Attica, Argolis, Sparta, the Greek islands, Crete, and near the Hellespont in Asia Minor, is certain. That Mycenæ seems to be the centre of this civilization agrees well with the saying of Homer that Agamemnon was "king over many islands and all Argos." The life depicted in the Homeric poems appears to be somewhat later than that indicated by the monuments of the Mycenæan age, as one would expect from the poems themselves, where the poet never claims to have seen the great struggle before Troy and knows that he lives in a degenerate age; but the difference is not so great as some have maintained who assume a sudden lapse into barbarism on the downfall of the prosperity of Mycenæ.

Curiously enough, while only a few years ago critics were impugning Homer's veracity, saying that he could not have seen products of an art so developed as he describes, now they say that he must be of a much later age, since the objects found at Mycenæ and Vaphio are so elaborate and artistic. Dr. Dörpfeld is understood to hold that the story of the monuments agrees well with that of Homer. Doubtless much remains to be learned from Troy, for which scholars are eagerly awaiting Dörpfeld's great work, and still more from Crete, where, under the Turkish Government, systematic explorations and excavations have been so difficult as to be impracticable. Recently, as our readers know, Crete has furnished specimens of the earliest style of writing on Greek soil, and the latest work on Greek mythology finds indications of strong Cretan influence in the cults of most Greek States. According to the old Greeks themselves, this island of Minos was one of the very earliest seats of Greek civilization, and scholars may well hope that investigations there will be as fruitful as those at Troy, Mycenæ, Tiryns, Orchomenos, and Vaphio have proved.

To the general reader the chief value of this book, of course, lies in its clear exposition of facts with regard to the landmarks of the Mycenæan world, the fortress-city, the palace, the private house and domestic life, the dwellings of the dead, dress and personal adornment, arms and war, some phases of Mycenæan art, the islands as mediators in art, writing in Mycenæan Greece, religion, the problem of Mycenæan chronology, the problem of the Mycenæan race, and the Mycenæan world and Homer. To the archæologist the ingenious views of Tsountas in explanation of these facts are full of interest, although often mere theories. He holds that the shaft-graves belong to an early race of Greeks called Danaans, akin to the Minyan founders of Orchomenos, who came from the north, where they had dwelt on piles, like the inhabitants of the Swiss lake cities, and established themselves first at Tiryns in the midst of a marsh, and then on the Larissa of Argos and at Mycenæ. Later, another race of Achæan Greeks came from a colder region, where they had been accustomed to underground dwellings, and, advancing toward the south, met the Danaans at Mycenæ, overcame them, and fortified that citadel still more strongly. To these Achæans belong the "beehive" tombs and chamber-graves, since they made the dwellings of their dead as like as possible to those of the living. One of the strongest supports of this hypothesis, however, is removed by Dörpfeld's explanation of the ruins of the private houses found at Mycenæ, of which the tall foundations without opening were compared by Tsountas to the supports of the lake-dwellings; and another argument, which recognizes in the great corridors and chambers of the citadel of Tiryns "a reminiscence of the primitive palisade earth-work such as is found in the *terramare* of Italy," is inconsistent with a passage on page 23, where these chambers are compared with similar structures in Carthage and the authors "assume that Phœnician and Lycian alike, in Africa and in Argolis, are employing a construction borrowed from an earlier Asiatic race." Another statement introduced on the same

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page (334) is probably wrong. There the American editor says that the Homeric "heroes never go fishing but once, and then only in the last pinch of famine." In fact, the men of Menelaus fish in the fourth book of the 'Odyssey' as well as the followers of Odysseus in the twelfth book, and the Homeric expression hardly justifies the common belief that the heroes would eat fish only "in the last pinch of famine," while the poet is certainly familiar with fishing not merely with net and with hook (with sinkers, and horn to prevent the fish from biting off the line), but also with fish-spear, although the heroes may not have cared particularly to "suck of the abundance of the seas and of the treasures that are hid in the sands." And, on the other hand, the absence of fish-bones from the remains of Mycenæ does not prove that the inhabitants of those ruined houses never ate fish; the bones of a shad or even of a cod are not so imperishable as oyster-shells.

Dörpfeld's introduction contains in its eleven pages, with much commendation, the clear statement of six points in which he differs from the Greek author. The translation from Tsountas's work is accurate. Twice (pp. 189, 201) "probably" stands for "possibly" (ἴσως). On p. 56, at the bottom, 37 should be read for 27; 1890 for 1895, near the top of p. 61; XX for XI on p. 299. Zara, Mideia, Pronoia, and St. Elias of the text correspond to Szara, Midea, Pronia, and Elias of the map. Kampos (pp. 8, 160) is in Messenia, not Laconia—at least, according to the ancient bounds. "Peisander" (p. 148) is for "Periander." The proof-reader has allowed to stand "*provénance*" (*sic*), as well as "*provenance*," "provenance," and "provenience"; and εὐκνημίδες (for εὐκνήμιδες) twice. If the transfer is required of the Greek technical terms *parastades* and *tholos* for *door-posts* and *dome*, these and *dromos* should have been explained when first used.

A critic is not expected to complain of the cost of a book for which he has not paid money, but he may express the regret that a book of such general interest and importance to classical scholars should be listed unnecessarily at so high a price as six dollars. This price cannot be due to the illustrations, for the plates and cuts are not so numerous as in the similar work of Schuchhardt, and, with half-a-dozen exceptions, they are no better. A good index is provided, which the original edition wholly lacked.

GARDINER'S GUNPOWDER PLOT.

What Gunpowder Plot Was. By S. R. Gardiner, D.C.L., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

Mr. Gardiner's latest contribution to our knowledge of the Stuart period has a somewhat unusual character. It combines the excitement of a detective story with the broadest outlines of national policy. Father John Gerard, S.J., published not long ago a doughty attack on the received version of the Powder Plot. The substance of his book had been presented to popular audiences in London, and, with the aid of lantern illustrations, had attracted considerable attention. Indeed, the *Edinburgh Review* thought it worth while to refute him. Mr. Gardiner now comes forward armed cap-à-pie to conclude the controversy in defence of the story which is told to children in the elementary schools. Keeping strictly to his text and dismissing all extraneous matter, he contrives in four chapters to sift the testimony so far as it relates to the active conspirators. Two chapters more interpret the episode in the light of James's attitude towards Roman Catholics. The difference between the two adversaries is, that while Father Gerard is content with casting doubt and with adumbrating a solution incapable of proof, Mr. Gardiner defends a distinct thesis. The one assures us that "the history commonly received is certainly untrue," and broadly hints that Salisbury either devised or fomented the plot for his own advantage. The other sets out by saying: "Of course there must be some ragged ends to the story—some details which must be left in doubt; but I shall ask my readers to watch narrowly whether the traditional story meets with any obstacles inconsistent with its substantial truth." One cannot complain that the defendant is less clear-cut and decided than the plaintiff is. Whatever else may be said of the two books, it is certain that Mr. Gardiner has no passages so weak as those in which Father Gerard, by innuendo and the hearsay of later generations, seeks to implicate Salisbury.

A proper examination of this recent literature on the Gunpowder Plot would involve a comparative view of the two writings just named and of the *Edinburgh Review* article. At the very least, Father Gerard and Mr. Gardiner are inseparable. Gauden and Milton, 'Eikon Basilike' and 'Eikonoklastes' are not more bound up together. Though we find ourselves unable to enter upon the subject in its entirety, we shall keep sight of the fact that dialectical interest is its keynote. Prima facie, Father Gerard's discovery seems to be a mare's nest, and the motto of his Society hardly promises pure historical criticism. On the board of commissioners were men hostile to Salisbury and inclined to lenient treatment of the recusants—men of honor withal. The evidence was good enough for them, and they were doubtless in possession of much information which has since been lost. With this feeling at the outset, we are soon confirmed in our suspicion that the special pleader is at work by the manner in which evidence is treated. Bishop Talbot, Osborne, Goodman, Father Grene, and Lord Cobham are among the witnesses subpœnaed to damage Cecil's reputation. Then, as if their separation from the event were not fatally damaging to their testimony, the second Earl of Salisbury is made to say, on the authority of an anonymous writer in Fulman's Collection, that "the plot was his father's contrivance." Mr. Gardiner is the last man to let pass such looseness of treatment even in a minor matter. When it comes to a polemical occasion, he is quite right to keep his eye on his adversary's manner of using the sources. However, instead of getting vexed, he merely shows surprise. "It seems strange to find a writer so regardless of what is, in these days, considered the first canon of historical inquiry, that evidence worth having must be almost entirely the evidence of contemporaries who are in a position to know something about that which they assert."

The reviewer in the *Edinburgh* is appeased when he has picked Father Gerard's objections to pieces. Mr. Gardiner is much more particular. He uses the analogy of a key in the wards of an intricate lock. If one theory fails try another. After the last has been tried in vain it will be time, and then only, to exclaim with a hopeless air, "What *was* the Gunpowder Plot?" Mr. Gardiner's first key is the accepted version, and he finds that no other is required. He puts Fawkes into the witness-box, follows him through his various depositions, and, having arranged the facts thus obtained, proceeds to the later documentary evidence. His conclusions at this stage are that the Government's knowledge was at the outset extremely slight; that Fawkes was gradually forced by cross-examination and torture to tell a more coherent story; that he bears true witness to the mine and cellar; that Winter's deposition is authentic; and that the exchange of Keyes's name for Winter's in the report of Fawkes's examination on the 17th "was at least the erasure of a false statement and the substitution of a true one."

Father Gerard is much concerned by the topographical difficulties that hinder one's belief in the ancient tale of Gunpowder Plot. Mr. Gardiner devotes a chapter to these and to the contention that the bulk of powder reported is incredible. He grants that Whynniard's house, of which Percy leased a part, has been erroneously located when placed to the southwest of the House of Lords; but, with the aid of the Crace collection of plans, he finds a house which "alone combines the conditions of being close to the House of Lords and having a door and window looking towards the river." Connected with this house was a piece of waste land mentioned in a deed of 1600. It was fairly large, and ran down to the river. When, therefore, Father Gerard objects that mining operations could not possibly have been carried on with secrecy in a district so populous as Westminster, Mr. Gardiner replies: "Nobody who had not business with Percy himself or with his neighbor on the south would be likely to approach Percy's door. As far as that side of the house was concerned it would be difficult to find a more secluded dwelling." Mr. Gardiner undoubtedly follows the safest course in meeting topographical objections by antiquarian research. Still, a single obvious consideration would have satisfied most people. Thousands upon thousands of curious visitors must have gone to Westminster in the months immediately following the discovery of the plot. Negative evidence must be used with caution, but some one would have noticed and talked had there been a discrepancy plain to the eye. One cannot now reconstruct the whole precinct of St. Stephen's, but clearly Father Gerard is too clever by half. The powder difficulty is quickly dismissed. Father Gerard assigns 400 pounds to the barrel instead of the 100 pounds then usual. This is a thrust of the *Edinburgh Review* which Mr. Gardiner considers final.

Closely allied to Father Gerard's theory that Salisbury promoted the plot to draw in Jesuits is the question of discovery. Was Monteagle's letter the first warning or was it invented for theatrical purposes? Father Gerard, on the watch as he is for traitors, fastens on Percy and Catesby—Percy, who in his opinion was a bigamist, and Catesby, who gave false reports to Sir Everard Digby and said false things about Garnet. This is to upset the accepted view that the secret escaped through Tresham's hint to his brother-in-law and to forge a long chain of treachery. The case against Percy consists

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of Goodman's report that Sir Francis Moore, "going homeward from York House to the Middle Temple at two [in the morning], several times met Mr. Percy, coming out of that great statesman's house, and wondered what his business should be there." The case against Catesby is too flimsy to deserve repetition. Mr. Gardiner's unfaltering opinion is that word came to Monteagle through Tresham, and that the letter which gave the Government its first hint of impending danger was prepared with Monteagle's previous knowledge. Else why should he, when on the point of sitting down to supper, have handed it to one of his gentlemen with a direction to read it aloud? Tresham had been brought into the plot at the eleventh hour for the sake of his influence and wealth. The theory is as old as Jardine that, shrinking in the end from wholesale slaughter, he helped to contrive Monteagle's Hoxton visit and the dramatic reading of the letter. Mr. Gardiner acquits Salisbury from the charge of connivance, on the ground that he would have acted stupidly in giving the plotters a chance to escape:

"Salisbury's object, according to Father Gerard's hypothesis, was to gain credit by springing upon the King and the world a partly or totally imaginary plot. If he was to do this, he must have some evidence to bring which would convince the world that the affair was not a mere imposture; and yet it is to be imagined that he contrives a scheme which threatens to leave him in possession of an obscure letter, and the knowledge that every one of the plotters was safely beyond the sea."

Fawkes and his band disbelieved in discovery because the cellar was not searched, and remained to be caught instead of effecting an easy escape.

Having disposed of matters arising from Sir Thomas Knyvet's raid on the cellar, Mr. Gardiner takes a higher flight. The men concerned in this desperate attempt were far from being bravoes or blackguards by profession. They were of good estate, brave, and devoted to a cause. Why, then, were they willing to sacrifice life on such a colossal scale? The answer is, that they were driven to a corner by the enforcement of the recusancy laws, and believed that James had broken pledges made when he was a candidate for the crown. From the charges brought against him, Salisbury's part in the proceedings against Catholics is traced with great care, and Mr. Gardiner's concluding chapters show that, his policy having been accepted and partially carried out, he was above the need of ingratiating himself with the King at the time the plot came to light. We must pass rapidly over what is the most striking feature of the case, both historically and in view of the present dispute—the responsibility, to wit, of Garnet, Greenway, and other spiritual advisers for this scheme to exterminate King and Lords. What Father Gerard can put on Salisbury's shoulders may, with plausibility, appear to be taken off the shoulders of Henry Garnet. But as Salisbury is not very heavily burdened, neither, in our opinion, is Garnet very appreciably relieved.

We should like to supplement this epitome of Mr. Gardiner's main arguments against Father Gerard by a short paragraph of general comment. The Gunpowder Plot may once have resembled "London column," which,

"pointing at the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies."

That is no longer the case. Every one whose judgment is worth attention knows that the mass of Roman Catholics are as free from its stigma as from connection with the fire or the mythical conspiracy of Titus Oates. Father Gerard need not exculpate them, and exculpation, we are fain to believe, is his main end. In the background lurk two critical questions. What were the teachings of the Jesuit order in the matter of assassination, wholesale or retail, and what was the motive of the Government in persecuting Catholics? Both of these questions Father Gerard leaves aside, but both are of enough consequence to justify him in continuing the discussion past the point where he has dropped it. His explicit tenets would be of considerably more interest than are his indirect shafts. For the present we heartily commend Mr. Gardiner's action in noticing this attack upon a hitherto accepted verdict of history. Like the fallacies of the circle-squarer or of the man who maintains the earth's flatness, Father Gerard's sophisms can be dealt with if taken seriatim. Mr. Gardiner has been at considerable pains to prove to his readers a conclusion which must have been clear to himself when he read Father Gerard's book. Moreover, he has handled the weapons of controversy with perfect skill and courtesy. We shall not attempt to deny Father Gerard's deftness of sword-play. In this respect he equals the Oxford defenders of 'Phalaris.' But his assault on Gunpowder Plot belongs to the large class of historical paradoxes—clever and ingenious, yet suggesting a famous comment on French cookery. The French, says Thackeray, make so many excellent dishes from the top of a nettle, it is a pity they haven't a little good butcher's meat.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

'Toinette, and Other Stories,' by Barbara Yechton (Whittaker), is a series of tract-like tales about some young seamstresses, shop-girls, and restaurant waiters who belonged to a girls' friendly society. Without offence to such societies, we must lament that an honest philanthropic enthusiasm is not the only qualification needed by a story-writer, and sometimes actually hinders success. The present book will suit only an embryonic literary taste, and for information we should prefer an annual report.

The heroine of a girls' book by Frances Courtenay Baylor, 'Miss Nina Barrow' (The Century Company), unites in her own small person all the faults imputed to the most exaggerated of American children; consequently, the feeling she awakens in a well-regulated family of fourteen or fifteen English cousins whom she visits at their country home is, naturally, one of amazement and horror. Her indignation at their plain fare and simple clothing meets their wonder at her smartness and utterly rude manners with comic effect. The picture of English family life is of real interest, and one hopes it may be typical. The improvement wrought in a most unpromising infant phenomenon by a more tonic treatment than she had received from her weakly indulgent grandmother, is not entirely surprising, for we are said to be an adaptable people. Perhaps it is a mistake to class this among children's books. At least, we find a very positive lesson for parents lurking behind the child's story.

'The Adventures of Mabel,' by Rafford Pyke (Dodd, Mead & Co.), inspires a degree of respect by its beautiful type and paper, and by its simply expressed pictures, for which three values have sufficed; but when one comes to read the story, indifference or disapproval arises. Some will stop at indifference when they find positive merit lacking, and think us over-critical to object to a childish heroine who, thanks to a fairy gift, tames a fierce wolf in the forest and a wildly unmanageable horse, who takes the lead in a piece of defective work, and copes single-handed with a monstrous giant of the old-fashioned child-devouring kind; and, in consequence of these and like actions, often hears her grandmother say, "You are a very wonderful little girl"—a judgment she accepts without disclaimer. Such incidents, to be sure, may be told in a harmless burlesque way, but unless better guarded than in this instance nothing would be more likely to foster conceit.

The Century Company send out this year 'A New Baby World,' composed, like its predecessors of former editions, of selections from *St. Nicholas*, chosen by Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge. Many of the pieces are new to Baby World, but some of the old favorites will be welcomed again.

The 'Fairy Tales from the Far North,' translated from Asbjörnsen's Norwegian by H. Braekstad (Armstrongs), suffers by a close comparison with the translations from the same author by the late Sir George Dasent, which he called 'Tales from the Fjeld.' It is small blame to say that the English of the present translations does not equal that of the earlier volume, for that stood above rival in racy vigor. But having already in English a translation of these tales that left nothing to be desired, what possible call is there for H. Braekstad or anybody else to give the same thing over again in even slightly inferior form? Of course the selections in these two volumes are not identical, but a cursory examination shows that fourteen of the forty tales in the present book appeared also in 'Tales from the Fjeld,' and, as the stories often have changed names, possibly more of them are concealed behind such a mask.

Mr. Andrew Lang adds this year to his fairy rainbow a 'Pink Fairy Book' (Longmans & Co.). The supply of this delightful lore is plainly inexhaustible to one who holds the key to its treasury, and in this volume, still, "the world is all before us where to choose." Japan and Africa, Sweden, Denmark, and Italy—with who knows how many other far regions?—all have some wonder story in reserve for the lucky English child.

Many a bit of information is given about the ways of insects and small beasts and birds in Clara Dillingham Pierson's 'Among the Meadow People' (E. P. Dutton & Co.)—given, too, with the sugar coating of imagination which is thought needful to make anything like a fact go down with the youngest readers. It is with some surprise that we hear of a butterfly's visiting, in one and the same day, a daisy, a cardinal flower, and a violet. Still, after watching violets bloom throughout the past season from May to the very edge of November, it might be rash to find fault with the above combination, although it is not a usual one in this part of the country. The book, however, deals rather with animal than with vegetable life, and will be a pleasant addition to a young child's library.

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'The Plant Baby and its Friends' (Silver, Burdett & Co.) is designed by its author, Kate Louise Brown, as a first reader in botany for primary scholars. Numerous drawings in the text illustrate botanical distinctions, and many of the hard words needed for exact description are insinuatingly introduced.

Miss Wilkins's excellent prose is good enough for most of us, and we think few will prefer the versified form which she adopts in 'Once upon a Time' (Lothrop). She seems to feel a little apologetic about it herself, and makes her appeal "to the sweet charity of little folk." Some of the verses are graceful, however, and pictures abound; among them none is more attractive than the

"Dear little model lassie,
Who was seen, but never heard."

'Adventures in Toyland,' by Edith King Hall (Scribners), is a group of stories told by a doll to a little girl, about the doings of dolls and toys in the seclusion of private life, when children are out of the way. Their adventures seem almost too tame to be worth chronicling; but they at least furnish an excuse for some odd-looking pictures which are doubtless expected to provide fully half the amusement.

Wild and grotesque fancies throng the pages of 'The Flame Flower, and Other Stories,' written and illustrated by J. F. Sullivan (J. B. Lippincott Co.). This exhaustless supply of puns and oddities will feast the childish imagination, but we should rather expect the youngsters to resent the frequent sly winks at their elders and the references which they cannot understand. The pictures are numerous and decidedly interesting. They show forth better than words many surprising wonders of natural (?) history like the *omnibustard*, the porcupineapple, etc.

'Here They Are,' a companion book by the same author, published by Longmans, Green & Co., offers a most unpromising exterior. A great bogie which suggests nothing so much as the famous "bandersnatch—the jaws that bite, the claws that catch," seems to stand guard over the volume and threaten rather than entice the approaching child. But, being old and brave, we venture inside the cover to find, as in 'The Flame Flower,' excellent, though rather frightful, pictures, and stories full of quaint conceits which inevitably suggest our old friend "Alice" and her Wonderland, but which have enough vigor and originality of their own to avoid the reproach of imitation. An amusing figure is that of the pirate's prim little mother, aged ninety-three, who innocently makes tea on deck beneath the black flag, and goes below whenever an engagement is on, being told by her thoughtful son that rain threatens. Another real acquisition is "The Blue Thing with White Dots"—a creature who begins life as a nondescript animal, and the only one who lacks a mate, in a child's Noah's Ark; whose youth is saddened by ignorance of his name, in quest of which he wanders far and long till finally he is discovered by one of his early human friends as an object of worship among a savage tribe.

'The Missing Prince,' by G. E. Farrow (Dodd, Mead & Co.), needs little comment. It is just such another book as the same author wrote last year—full of dreary nonsense without a spark of genuine fun. Its poor quality makes ridiculous the author's complacent preface in which he speaks of receiving "many nice letters" about his former book, and asks his young friends to write and tell him what kind of a story they would like him to write next but one—the very next being already in hand. This is demand and supply with a vengeance.

'Singing Verses for Children' (Macmillan) is a holiday collection of eighteen songs, the words by Lydia A. Coonley, pictures by Alice K. Tyler, music by Eleanor Smith, Jessie J. Gaynor, F. W. Root, and F. H. Atkinson, jr. Musically the best of the songs are Mr. Root's, and of the whole collection it may be said that the three arts combine in about equal proportion in giving the book such merit as it possesses.

Last year the Scribners issued a 'Field-De Koven Song Book,' and its favorable reception has encouraged them to produce another book on similar lines, 'The Stevenson Song Book,' a musical setting of Robert Louis Stevenson's charming 'Child's Garden of Verses,' in which the great novelist revealed himself as one thoroughly in sympathy with the child nature. Twenty of the poems have been provided with music, by De Koven, Stanford, Gilchrist, Homer N. Bartlett, Hawley, Foote, and Chadwick. These songs are hardly on a level with Stevenson's verses, none of them being specially original; but they are popular in character, and those who enjoy the average operetta—which means a great many—will like them.

'Three Operettas,' by H. C. Bunner, the music by Oscar Weil (Harpers), is another volume for young folks in which the poetry is superior to the music, though that serves its purpose well enough. Although two of these operettas are in two acts, and one in three, they are all very short, and amateur performers with their audiences will find them quite amusing. The names of the operettas give an idea of their nature—"The Three Little Kittens of the Land of Pie," "The Seven Old Ladies of Lavender Town," and "Bobby Shaftoe." The scenes are laid in various places, but the time is always "once upon a time." There are not a few sly touches of humor that cannot fail to please children beyond their teens.

The Boston Browning Society Papers. The Macmillan Company. 1897.

In this massive volume the eleven-year-old Boston Browning Society offers to the world for the first time a series of essays intended to represent one of its "many modes of activity." In their preface the editors strike the defiant note of those whose efforts have hitherto been misunderstood. They claim that these papers will

"demonstrate to the most sceptical of those who in the past have failed to perceive the significance of the literary movement which the Society represents, and, therefore, have failed to appreciate the value and permanency of its results, that the literary criticism pursued by the Society has been broad in scope as well as impartial and scholarly in quality."

We fear that there are hardened critics whom even these essays, penned as they are by "men and women who have attained eminence as specialists in philosophy, theology, and literature," will leave cold. Among the worshippers of true poetry and true romance are those who think that there are certain characteristics (and those the most essential) in the work of every great poet which can only be cheapened by the most careful explanations that the "sound and broad culture" of Boston can furnish. There will ever be those who would rather read their "Childe Roland" with a thrill of the mysterious than search out its lessons under the guidance of the exponents of ethical culture. They will complain, with a certain modern critic who lamented that the London Browning Society had explained his divinity away, that "where one had hoped that Browning was a mystic, the Society has sought to show that he was merely inarticulate. Where one had fancied that he had something to conceal, the Society has proved that he had but little to reveal." To the vast majority, however, which craves to have every subtlety digested into words by the literary critic, these essays will afford ample sustenance. The æsthetic critic, nowadays, needs more than ever to remind us of the "long-standing feud" between Poetry and Philosophy, which Plato hardened his heart to maintain. The efforts of the Boston Browning Society seem aimed to prove that in Browning these old enemies have kissed again with tears. For the Society, as for Lessing, the catharsis—the soul's purification by a work of art through the emotions of pity and terror—*must be moral, not æsthetic.* "*Qu'est-ce que cela prouve?*" asked a spectator, after the performance of "Athalie." For the Society, every poem of Browning illustrates a rule of conduct and bewails the lack of harmony between that rule and the actions of the individual soul. Rarely are we allowed to forget the "moral culture" that we ought to carry away from a reading of the poems. "The Greek words for beautiful and ugly have secondary meanings of honorable and base," remarks one essayist; "that is to say, ethics is assumed to be a branch of æsthetics—an idea quite contrary to our New England bringing up" (p. 393). ". . . I think that both Homer and Browning believed that poetry should be didactic" (p. 396). Seldom, indeed, do we meet the purely æsthetic point of view in these papers, though more than one title takes the name of Art in vain.

One distinction, too often neglected, we should like to see maintained. The words "Philosopher" and "Philosophy" strike the eye on every page. But from your true philosopher who, judging undisturbed, decides that the freedom of the will is an illusion, that good and evil are merely relative terms, that there can be no data for the belief in the permanence of the ego after death, it is a far cry to Browning the moralist and the Browning Society pointing the moral. "To-day we look at the moral side of a question and neglect the others," says the author of "Browning's Art in Monologue." "Nothing is of any account except as it helps me to be, except as it develops my soul. The world talks in such fashion to-day to those who would gain its ear. Its favorites are . . . poets who preach, like Wordsworth; . . . a leader of our time must be a teacher of morals." This is the keynote of nearly all the essays. So we have sixteen pages of lessons drawn from "Caliban on Setebos," closing in this strain:

"We Calibanise when we transcribe into the character of God our own defects, and attribute to Him qualities inconsistent with either wisdom, justice, or love. We Calibanise when we impose our intellectual limitations upon the universe; . . . and when we imagine that the universe is run

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chiefly in our personal interest or in hostility to us, how much we must resemble the creature who takes his own capricious likes and dislikes for samples of the Cosmos!" (p. 83).

Is this "literary criticism," or is it the peroration of a sermon? The sense of the chaotic which invades a reader of these essays is, we think, mainly due to this constant interfusion of Art and Ethics.

"Broad scope" is claimed for these papers in the preface. No one who reads the one entitled "Homer and Browning" will accuse its author of narrowness of stride. An essay that aims at an "intelligent comparison" of Homer and Browning would tax a colossus. It is, in a sense, true that "Homer's 'Iliad' and Browning's 'Ring and the Book' are both founded on certain infelicities of married life" (p. 391), but the parallel of Helen of Troy and Pompilia is one that the world should be willing and even anxious to let die, along with the striking antithesis, "Homer is often eloquent. . . . Browning seldom aims at eloquence." It is in this essay (p. 389) that we are told that

"the probable date of Homer, who, for the purposes of this paper, I assume was a real person, may be stated roughly as 1200 B. C. . . . His works afford the only clue to his character; and from them we can but infer that he was quite unlike the consumptive-looking individual represented by the bust that bears his name. Like Browning, he evidently was a man of the world, keen-sighted and robust, with a wide experience of life in all its phases."

This is to lapse into "careless habits of accuracy" with a vengeance.

Several of these essays treat of the influence of the classics on Browning, and quote the well-known lines from "Old Pictures in Florence" as a proof of his "repudiation, once and for ever, of the Pagan ideal":

"To-day's brief passion limits their range;
It seethes with the morrow for us, and more.
They are perfect—how else? they shall never change:
We are faulty—why not? we have time in store.
. . . . . .
They stand for our copy, and once invested
With all they can teach we shall see them abolished."

It is true that in Browning's literary life there was a long Gothic period when he was possessed by the vague, which is ever repulsive to the true Hellenic temperament. Too rarely in that period do we recover the calm beauty of "Pauline" of the early days:

"They came to me in my first dawn of life.
. . . . . .
I tell you, naught has ever been so clear
As the place, the time, the fashion of those lives:
I had not seen a work of lofty art,
Nor woman's beauty, nor sweet Nature's face,
Yet, I say, never morn broke clear as those
On the dim clustered isles in the blue seas,
On deep groves and white temples and wet caves;
And nothing ever will surprise me now—
Who stood before the naked Swift-footed,
Who bound my forehead with Proserpine's hair."

But in later life, when the fever was gone, there was a renaissance of classical influence shown in his translations of Aeschylus and Euripides which may stand for Browning's palinode. Still, we are far from agreement with the author of "Balaustion's Opinion of Euripides," who contends that "Browning's transcript is not a misrepresentation of the Greek dramatist" (p. 430). We fail to see how one who is acquainted with the "Alcestis" can object to Mr. Verrall's statement that "Balaustion's Adventure" is a "thorough-going recomposition of the subject." Balaustion is, in fact, like Jowett's Plato, *très belle, mais peu fidèle*. The obvious danger that besets the members of such a society is lest their conviction of Browning's supremacy should run away with their critical sense—a danger that has not always been avoided in these papers. Even idolatry of Browning is seldom as headlong as that of the essayist who (p. 285) gives the epithet "bewitching" to the line—

"Like a late moon, of use to nobody";

and calls it "a passage of flawless and satisfying beauty."

But the Boston Browning Society's Muse, like Hesiod's, can speak the real truth when she will, and incautious admiration is by no means the rule in the present case. The volume certainly does credit to the industry of the Society. "Whether it's worth while goin' through so much to learn so little," as Mr. Weller said of matrimony, is a matter of taste.

The Story of the Cowboy. By E. Hough. D. Appleton & Co.

In the well-aimed "Story of the West" series we have had already two worthy volumes—'The Story of the Indian,' by Mr. Grinnell, and 'The Story of the Mine,' by Mr. Shinn. It would be considerable praise to say that the third book in the line fully merited its place; but it would be too little to say of Mr. Hough's rather unexpected work, which is thoroughly competent and illuminative—an uncommon study of a type so strange that we are not yet used to looking upon it soberly.

The cowboy has a story, and it was worth telling. Probably no other figure in American development has been so misconstrued. Every Eastern imagination knows this Western person—this picturesque, irresponsible, gallopading, sixshootering dime-novel-on-horseback. Thousands of sensational or superficial pages and scores of "wild shows" have framed him as settled a convention as Uncle Sam—and with about as much accuracy. Among all who have fattened at his expense there has seemed to be no disposition to show him as he really is—a hard-working, honest, expert, unflinching man, whose technical education required at least the length of a college "course"—and as inevitably must be the man who has accomplished so much. It was only with the beginning of serious work by Mr. Roosevelt and other men who have known the real West and were competent to tell of it, that we began to get reasonable glimpses.

Yet no one has illuminated the subject as Mr. Hough does. With an almost unimpeachable knowledge of detail, he has unusual faculty for telling in large. In so long a story he sometimes suggests repetitions; but his style is peculiarly apt to his theme. It is of the very temper of his field—clear, forceful, contained; sure-footed and bridle-wise as his own "cow-pony." It nowhere runs away with him, but, with so steady a hand on the rein, frequently comes to an effective eloquence. For further confirmation of how the cowboy does *not* talk, act, or think, one may read Mr. Lewis's contemporaneous 'Wolfville' and be amused; to discover what this long-rider does feel, how little he says of it, and in what fashion he says it, it is useful to read Mr. Hough and be informed.

Mr. Hough draws a figure which is not only true but convincing. Satisfactory to the expert, the cowboy becomes intelligible at last to the layman. Suddenly he stands human. He is no longer a freak but a product—a product and a factor. Instead of a theatrical "property," he is a hard (and generally sober) fact in history and economics. He can gallop, and at times does; but he rides through life at a trot. If sometimes dramatic, it is because his existence is generically so severely practical. When we understand the average of this curious type, there ceases to be mystery in the fact that he tamed for sedentary colonization an area larger than that which still includes two-thirds of the population of the United States.

Mr. Hough traces this specific American type back to its germ in the Spanish-American vaquero, who was as picturesque, as expert, and as typical, but less a factor in large economies, because ungrowing. Here the chain is weakest. There is steady gain in the smithing as the author passes, link by link, to the first Saxon pupils of the Mexican cattle-compeller—the Texan squatters—and thenceforward. The unprophetic beginnings and the foreseeing development of "the Long Trail" take hold upon real romance. In another land it would have been sung by troubadours; here, for a thousand to whom "cowboy" is a household simulacrum, there are perhaps fifty who ever heard of this strangest highway in history. But Mr. Hough brings up the rear. He celebrates the Trail, not only with truth, but in a prose which has many large elements of the epic, and is furthest from what ordinarily passes for "poetic style."

Detail is easy to patience, yet no one has so accurately detailed the life and circumstance of the Western cattle-man. Successful generalization is another thing; and no one has nearly so well exhibited the broad significance of this serious, dogged, shrewd struggle with Nature which made, and *was*, the cow-man. It is not necessary to agree with the author as to the kinship of beef-eating and freedom; but he proves the relation of the "cow-country" to the winning of the West. Behind—and enabled by—the cowboy, farms and fences have crept, and a thoroughfare to the Pacific; and, following, have exterminated him. He was not all good, he was not half bad—just a man, shaped by the frontier; rude but fairly heroic. Like the less misjudged trappers and hunters and scouts, the Boones and Carsons and Godeys, he served larger horizons by doing his own narrow duties to the best that was in him or could grow there. Mr. Hough has done a service in drawing at scale this direct, unique product and factor of one typical stage of our development—typical though brief. It was a service to prove the dignity of this one type, which is but another form of every type that met and beat the wilderness in behalf of civilization.

It is particularly aggravating to find in a book of this character such persistent cacographies. *Grama* is conscientiously misspelled "gramma" throughout; *hacendado* is "haciendado" here, with "chaparéjos" for *chaparrejos*. Wholly inexcusable is "broncho," "the Spanish word for wild." No cowboy ever called his horse "Bronch"; it is always "Bronk." Bronco is a Spanish word, invariable in Spanish and in scholarly English; but there are proofreaders who seem to fancy that the word is Greek, and that the vaquero entitled his horse after some "bronchial" infirmity.

Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome III. Paris: Armand Colin.

The third volume of this important work

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does much more than fulfil the promise of the first two, partly, no doubt, because of the greater intrinsic interest of the period discussed, but still more from the spirit in which the collaborators have understood their respective tasks. An admirable introductory sketch by the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) sets forth the principles of the Revival of Letters, and insists on the fundamental differences in aim and desire between the strictly religious reformers and their worldly-minded, scholarly contemporaries of the Renaissance. The writer also shows clearly, with the help of carefully selected quotations, that between the Middle Ages and the Revival of Secular Learning the solution of continuity was by no means so complete as conventional opinion would heretofore have had us believe. M. Marty-Laveaux's treatment of Rabelais in the succeeding chapter disposes, skilfully and without over-display of erudition, not only of the gossip frequently connected with the satirist's life, but of the several wire-drawn hypotheses which vainly attempt to explain the obscurer parts of his work; while the critic's independent conclusions force into salient relief the main traits of Rabelais's nature as well as the really important part of his literary and philosophical labors. One might wish, however, that the late Eugène Noël's charming, if not learned, book had been granted a place in the bibliography.

As is but just, the poetry of the sixteenth century occupies many pages in the volume. No general estimate of the Pléïade, to our knowledge, presents so complete and judicial a view of the movement as that of M. Pellissier, which should be read with care by all students of French literature who have been led to take their opinions from the hackneyed, but superficial, verses of Malherbe and Boileau. Nor is there any paradox in maintaining with M. Pellissier that Ronsard and his school were filled with the "classic" spirit of which the following century saw the complete development, and that the Romanticists of 1830, in claiming literary descent from the Pléïade, failed to understand this vital characteristic of its complex tendencies. M. Rigal, in the sixth chapter, has no difficulty in giving attractiveness to the account of the transition from religious to secular plays, but he wisely refrains from enlisting his readers in defence of the high artistic merit of either. His concluding sentence, on the Pastoral Drama, might without rashness be extended to most of the works examined: "Il ne lui manquait que d'avoir produit des œuvres de talent, ou, plus simplement, des œuvres qui méritassent d'être lues."

Among theologians, Calvin and St. François de Sales hold the foremost places. While disclaiming any intention of touching on disputed points of purely theological interest, the commentators (MM. Petit de Julleville and Rébelliau) have not hesitated to express candid opinions on the men themselves and the literary worth of their work. Followers of the one will probably not relish the characterization of him as the "Pope of the Reformation," hostile to the spirit of tolerance, and swollen with "égoïsme intellectuel"; while the faithful of another order may wince over a paragraph which dwells on the milk-and-water wordiness of St. Francis's sermons. Much the most interesting chapter is that devoted to the Moralists, in which Montaigne and Charron seem to us to have received the fairest of judgments from M. Paul Bonnefon, who takes the latter down from the pedestal on which Buckle placed him for English readers, and vindicates the character of the first of essayists from the too common charges of indifference and cowardice. The same critic's examination of the scientific literature of the sixteenth century, chiefly in the work of Palissy, Ambroise Paré, and Olivier de Serres, leaves little to be desired, save that, before quoting a famous aphorism, 'L'Art Poétique' might with advantage have been consulted. Boileau's verse runs—

"Ce *que l'on* conçoit bien s'énonce clairement,"

and not

"Ce *qui se* conçoit."

etc., for reasons of euphony sufficiently obvious.

To historians and writers of memoirs a somewhat scanty place is allowed in this volume, which summarizes the work of Sully in two pages. Fuller justice is done to Bodin, La Boétie, and the authors of the 'Satyre Ménippée'; this last work, by its patriotic and national spirit, no doubt compelling ampler recognition of its merits. The last and longest chapter contains M. Ferdinand Brunot's continuation of the historical development of the language during the same period. We do not know any work in French, generally accessible to the public, in which the details of the long struggle for supremacy between Latin and French are more carefully and interestingly worked out, or in which the subject is treated with equal fairness and lucidity. We would venture, however, to point out a Macaulayesque mannerism in the writer's too frequent use of the phrase "tout le monde sait."

As we have already insisted, the example given in this collaboration of French scholars and critics calls for imitation in English-speaking lands. What strikes one most forcibly in it is the careful avoidance of the polemical tone, the absence of faddish bias. It will be hard for any public or academic library to do without it.

Pompeji vor der Zerstörung: Reconstructionen der Tempel und ihrer Umgebung, entworfen und ausgeführt von C. Weichardt. Leipzig: K. F. Koehler; New York: Lemcke & Buecher. 1897.

This folio volume contains (apart from the text, which is printed in large, handsome type by Grumbach of Leipzig), twelve full-page or double-page plates, made (from water-colors) in photogravure by Bruckmann of Munich, and 150 process cuts of the finest sort, executed in the Royal Academy of Art in Leipzig. The merest glance at this triple product is enough to show that in artistic beauty it is not excelled, and hardly equalled, by any of the works which have ever been published about Pompeii. A more careful examination assures one that it is to be praised not only for its beauty. The author is professor in the Royal Academy of Art in Leipzig, and a painter in water-colors of real genius. He has lived in Italy for many years, and he knows his Pompeii through and through. His work is the result of study and painting on the spot, not of the theories and dreams of the archæologist in his study. His larger illustrations are real works of art, deserving admiration as such altogether aside from their archæological value as restorations of the ruins of Pompeii. They have none of the stiffness and frigidity that characterize all the restorations attempted in the standard works on the city which died that it might live for ever. The atmosphere of human life is all about them, and it is no wonder that Ernst Curtius, after studying the first plates, admitted "dass ihm hier zum ersten Mal Pompeji menschlich näher träte."

But Weichardt is not merely an artist. He is also a practical architect and a scholar possessed of a real knowledge and a true appreciation of the facts of ancient life. He is sufficiently familiar with the literature of his subject, ancient and modern, and he has a most intimate acquaintance with the contents of the wonderful Museum of Naples, so indispensable to every thorough student of Pompeiian and Roman antiquity. Most of his smaller pictures are from photographs of objects in the museum which he has used for the details in his large plates. Others are from photographs of the details of the ruins which he reconstructs. Of both kinds many are here published for the first time. There is not a second-hand cut in the whole book, and the student will not be repelled by the vain repetition of subjects familiar to him from his Overbeck, his Mau, or his harmless accessory Smith. It is true that Weichardt's work is done throughout from the standpoint of an architect, and yet his style is such as to make his book popular in the best sense of that term. Here and there are inserted chapters particularly technical, which, as he says, "laymen may skip."

The twelve large plates are devoted to the Forum Triangulare and its neighborhood, the Greek temple, and the temples of Apollo, Fortuna Augusta, Jupiter, Vespasian, Isis, and the Three Gods. Besides the chapters on these buildings, their details, and their surroundings, there are two introductory chapters on the history of Vesuvius and Pompeii, and another on ancient and modern excavations on this site. A final chapter contains a translation of Pliny's letters about the fatal eruption. Prof. Weichardt intends to publish a companion volume on the public buildings and private houses of Pompeii, provided the reception given to the present work warrants him in so doing. Everybody who sees this book will look eagerly to the fulfilment of his promise. His restorations are the work of a sane, practical mind, and generally it is only in small details that they call for hostile criticism. His most serious probable error seems to be his providing two of his temples with an uneven number of columns in front; yet he has much to say in defence of this peculiarity.

A Correspondence between John Sterling and Ralph Waldo Emerson. With a sketch of Sterling's Life by Edward Waldo Emerson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

If Carlyle's 'Life of Sterling' is not read by many persons nowadays, as Mr. E. W. Emerson surmises in his prefatory note to this little volume, the more is the pity, for, except his 'Reminiscences,' it is the most tender piece of writing that he ever did, and touches religious matters in his most persuasive manner. Mr. Emerson resents the "Poor Sterling!" note in it, and there was no doubt too much of that, but, nevertheless, the book deserved a warmer commendation to his readers than Mr. Emerson has given it. His own sketch is brief but excellent, within the narrow

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limits he prescribes for it. If it errs at all it is by overestimate of Sterling's gifts. Time has winnowed his harvest of prose and verse, as it has many another, and there is not much of it that is of the kind which men do not willingly let die. He appears to have been one of those whose personality is more than anything they do, and who mean more to their friends than we can justify from their writings. In Emerson's case this personal effect of Sterling was so strong that it did not require their knowledge of each other in the flesh. For a friendship so purely spiritual, theirs was very warm and intimate. But it is evident from Emerson's letters that he did not find Sterling so stimulating a correspondent as Carlyle. It is only when the shadow of death is resting upon Sterling that Emerson's writing to him attains his highest mark.

When we read, in Sterling's letters, of Cornelius as the greatest of modern painters, the note is one to give us pause, and there are many such. Thus, Tieck was the one man in Europe Sterling wished to see. His glimpses of Carlyle are interesting, but both he and Mr. Emerson, his editor, do injustice to his feeling for poetry. Sterling writes of him that he "in truth hates all poetry except for that element in it which is not poetic at all." For absolute disproof of this one has only to turn to the new Life of Tennyson and read the letter Carlyle sent to Tennyson on the appearance of the volumes of 1842. Sterling himself reviewed those volumes in the *Quarterly*, and so appreciatively that we do not like to find him saying here, "Tennyson does better [than others], but does little, and they say will hardly wake out of tobacco smoke into any sufficient activity." This would be comprehensible as written during Tennyson's long and almost absolute silence from 1833 to 1842, but, written less than two years after the splendid harvest gathered in the volumes of 1842, it seems at once ungrateful and absurd.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. F. F. Selected Letters of Cicero. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Anstey, F. Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B.A. Appleton. $1.50.
Armstrong, Annie E. Mona St. Claire. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Armstrong, Eliza. The Teacup Club. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Atkinson, Philip. The Elements of Electric Lighting. 9th ed. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Banks, L. A. An Oregon Boyhood. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Barber, Samuel. Trash: A Society Novel. New York: The Author. 25c.
Bardeen, C. W. Teaching as a Business. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Barnes, James. Commodore Bainbridge: From the Gunroom to the Quarter-Deck. Appletons. $1.
Barton, W. E. A Hero in Homespun: A Tale of the Loyal South. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Benham, Charles. The Fourth Napoleon: A Romance. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Black, Alexander. A Capital Courtship. Scribners. $1.
Burr, Rev. E. F. Fabius the Roman; or, How the Church Became Militant. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Burton, Richard. Memorial Day, and Other Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. True to His Home: A Tale of the Boyhood of Franklin. Appletons. $1.50.
Cable, G. W. Old Creole Days. Illustrated. Scribners. $6.
Carty, C. F. All about the Emerald Ring. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Chuquet, Arthur. La Jeunesse de Napoléon. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Cleary, Kate M. Like a Gallant Lady. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Craddock, Charles E. The Juggler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Curtis, C. C. A Text-Book of General Botany. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
D'Aurévilly, J. A. B. Of Dandyism, and of George Brummell. London: Dent; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Douglas, Amanda M. Her Place in the World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Fowler, Jessie A. A Manual of Mental Science for Teachers and Students. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.
Garrison, Wendell P. Parables for School and Home. Illustrated. Longmans. $1.25.
Gibson, C. D. The People of Dickens. Drawings. R. H. Russell. $5.
Gill, William. The King of the Street. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Grand, Sarah. The Beth Book. Appletons. $1.50.
Hutchinson, Rev. M. N. Marriage Customs in Many Lands. Appletons. $4.
Hyde, W. DeW. Practical Idealism. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ingalis, J. K. Reminiscences of an Octogenarian in the Fields of Industrial and Social Reform. New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Inman, Col. H. L. The Old Santa Fé Trail. Macmillan.
Jacobs, W. W. The Skipper's Wooing. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
Jenks, E. A. The Spinning Wheel at Rest. Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
King, Capt. Charles. The General's Double. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. The Book of Dreams and Ghosts. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lang, Andrew. Wordsworth. [Selections from the Poets.] Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lillie, Mrs. Lucy C. A Girl's Ordeal. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Lindsay, W. M. Handbook of Latin Inscriptions. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Maclaren, Ian. The Potter's Wheel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Manly, Prof. J. M. Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama. Vol. I. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Mansfield, Richard. Blown Away: A Nonsensical Narrative. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Marble, Mrs. Annie R. Carlyle's Heroes and Hero-Worship. Macmillan. 80c.
McCaffery, M. J. A. The Worst Boy in the School. G. W. Dillingham Co. 75c.
Muir, H. D. Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Munkittrick, R. K. The Slambangaree, and Other Stories. R. H. Russell. 75c.
Parker, F. W., and Helm, Nellie L. Uncle Robert's Geography. [Home Reading Books.] Appletons. 50c.
Peattie, Elia W. Pippins and Cheese. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Phillips, W. A. The War of Greek Independence. 1821 to 1833. Scribners. $1.50.
Phil May's "Graphic" Pictures. George Routledge & Sons.
Pinsent, Ellen F. Job Hildred, Artist and Carpenter. Edward Arnold. $1.25.
Poole, Louella C., and Jonsson, Andréa. Shakspere Calendar, 1898. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Pope, M.M. Up the Matterhorn in a Boat. Century Co. $1.25.
Posterity; or, Democracy, A.D. 2100. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams.
Riley, J. W. Neighborly Poems and Dialect Sketches. Scribners.
Setoun, Gabriel, George Malcolm. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Shirley, Penn. The Happy Six. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Skeel, Adelaide. King Washington: A Romance of the Hudson Highlands. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Smith, F. H. Gondola Days. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Stephens, R. N. An Enemy to the King. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Tennyson, Alfred, Lord. The Princess. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
The Chatelaine. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts VII. and VIII. Putnams. Each $1.
Thoreau, H. D. Walden; or, Life in the Woods. 2 vols. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. IX. Quebec, 1636. Cleveland: Burrows Bros.
Tyner, Saul. The Living Christ. Denver: Temple Publishing Co. $1.
Van Dyke, Henry. The First Christmas Tree. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.
Ver Beck, Frank, and Paine, A. B. The Dumpies. R. H. Russell.
Wallace, J. H. The Horse of America. New York: The Author.
Walt, Frona E. Yermah the Dorado. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Whitman, Walt. Leaves of Grass. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $2.
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